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UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FOREIGN STUDENTS
SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT

by

Nurit Reshef

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate
Studies and Research in Partial Fulfilment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Physical Education and Sport Studies

Edmonton, Alberta

Spring, 1990

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to understand the process of socialization into Canadian sport among foreign students at the university of Alberta. A conceptual framework that integrated micro- and macro-level theories was utilized to explain different elements of the process. A variety of variables within antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions were utilized in an effort to clarify whether, and to what extent, foreign students were being socialized into primary and secondary sport involvement in a Canadian setting.

The underlying assumption was that sport can be viewed as a facilitator of ethnic integration (Reisman and Denny, 1951; Tobin, 1967; Mack, 1968; Day, 1981). Thus, an understanding of the process of foreign student socialization into sport might be used as a means of easing the adjustment and the integration of these students into Canadian society.

All international students at the University of Alberta were included in the survey. This was because the extraction of a sample from this population may have eliminated smaller sub-groups with distinctly different characteristics. Thus, data were gathered mainly through self-administered questionnaires, sent to the 1556 foreign students. The questionnaires were distributed to 769 undergraduates and 787 graduate students, who represented 85 different countries.

Due to the number and variety of items for each set of variables, composite indicators were calculated for most of the variables (e.g., social status consists of education, occupational prestige and family income). Path analysis was used to examine the hypothesized model that explains the process of foreign students socialization into sport.

The findings of this study highlighted four dimensions that were important in the socialization process of foreign students into primary and secondary sport roles. More specifically, the attitudinal dimension explained much of the variance in primary sport involvement, while secondary involvement was strongly influenced by the antecendent, cultural and situational dimensions. Furthermore, the results reflected unique gender differences as well as different patterns of sport involvement among graduates and undergraduates, and married and single students.

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A number of people have contributed to the completion of this work. I would like to acknowledge my indebtedness to them.

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Last, but not least, I would like to acknowledge the contribution of my "significant other". I am most grateful to my husband Yoni, without whom this study would not have seen the light of day. Yoni not only took care of our two children during the writing, but was also an inspiring partner throughout. With the advice, encouragement and selfless labour of Yoni, I managed to complete this worthwhile task.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1 -- STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM......................1

A. Introduction - Purpose of the Study..........1
B. Definitions..................................7
C. Justification of the Study...................9
D. Limitations..................................15
E. Summary......................................17

CHAPTER 2 -- LITERATURE REVIEW...........................18

PART 1 -- INTRODUCTION...............................18

A. Socialization Defined........................18
B. Development of Socialization in Sociology and Psychology...................22

PART 2 -- SOCIALIZATION THEORY.......................24

A. The Psychoanalytic Position..................24
B. The Cognitive Perspective....................28
C. Symbolic Interactionism......................31
D. Social Learning Theory.......................35
E. Social Structural Analysis...................45
F. Summary......................................48

PART 3 -- ADULT SOCIALIZATION........................54

A. Introduction.................................54
B. Role Changes in Adulthood....................56
C. Immigration..................................59
D. Adult Socialization in Socializing Organizations..............................66

PART 4 -- SOCIALIZATION AND SPORT PARTICIPATION......69

A. Introduction.................................69
B. Social Role-Social System Model..............71
C. Socialization into Primary and Secondary Sport Roles..................................77
D. Adult Sport Involvement......................79
E. Female Sport Socialization...................82
F. Sport and Ethnic Relations in Canada.........88
G. Culture and Sport............................92

PART 5 -- SUMMARY....................................96

CHAPTER 3 -- CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK..........................99

- A. Introduction..................................99
- B. The Conceptual Framework.....................108
- C. Propositions.................................111
- D. Hypothesized Model...........................127

CHAPTER 4 -- PROCEDURES.................................131

- A. Operationalization of Variables:.............131
  - 1. Dependent Variables......................131
  - 2. Independent Variables....................132
- B. The Population...............................141
- C. Data Collection..............................143
- D. The Respondents..............................150
- E. Data Analysis................................151

CHAPTER 5 -- RESULTS....................................155

PART 1 -- DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS........................155

- A. Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables..............................155
- B. Descriptive Statistics for Several Independent Variables.....................162
- C. Additional Information.......................174

PART 2 -- THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES....................184

- A. The Antecedent Dimension.....................184
- B. The Cultural Dimension.......................190
- C. The Attitudinal Dimension....................197
- D. The Situational Dimension....................204
- E. Summary......................................221

PART 3 -- PATH ANALYSIS.................................222

- A. Path Analysis for Primary and Secondary Involvement in Sport.........................224
- B. Path Analysis for Male Students..............230
- C. Path Analysis for Female Students............234
- D. Path Analysis for Undergraduate Students...237
- E. Path Analysis for Graduate Students..........241
- F. Path Analysis for Married Students...........245
- G. Path Analysis for Single Students............249
- H. Path Analysis for Chinese Students...........252
- I. Summary......................................256

CHAPTER 6 -- DISCUSSION.....................................259

A. Discussion of Descriptive Statistics.......259
B. Discussion of Bivariate Analysis...........267
C. Discussion of Multivariate Analysis........277

CHAPTER 7 -- SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....297

PART 1 -- SUMMARY...................................297

A. Purpose.................................297
B. Methodology.............................298
C. Analysis................................300

PART 2 -- CONCLUSIONS...............................301

A. Descriptive Statistics..................301
B. Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis........303

PART 3 -- RECOMMENDATIONS...........................305

A. Recommendations.........................305
B. Implications............................309

BIBLIOGRAPHY..315

APPENDICES

A. A Cover Letter..........................335
B. Questionnaire...........................337
C. Reminding Letters.......................350

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

(1) Population by Selected Ethnic Origins, 1986..........64

(2) Full-Time Foreign Students at the University of Alberta (1983-1989)..............................142

(3) Frequency Distributions of Country of Citizenship (Respondents Vs. Population)............147

(4) Percentage Frequency Distribution of Sex of Respondents and Population of International Students...............................148

(5) Percentage Frequency Distribution of Degree of Respondents and Population of International Students.......................................149

(6) The Sample Demographics..............................149

(7) Frequency Distribution of Primary Involvement in Sport by Country.......................................156

(8) Frequency Distribution of Secondary Involvement in Sport by Country.......................................157

(9) Oneway Analysis for Primary and Secondary Involvement in Sport by Country...................157

(10) Frequency Distribution for Primary Involvement in Sport by Sex.......................................159

(11) Frequency Distribution for Secondary Involvement in Sport by Sex.......................................159

(12) Means, SD and T-Values for Males and Females........160

(13) Frequency Distribution of Primary Involvement in Sport by Degree Program..........................161

(14) Frequency Distribution of Secondary Involvement in Sport by Degree Program..........................161

(15) Means, SD and T-Values for Undergraduate and Graduate Students...............................162

(16) Frequency Distribution for Past Involvement In Sport by Sex.......................................163

(17) Means, SD and T-Values of Past Involvement In Sport for Males and Females.....................164

(18) Frequency Distribution for Attitude Toward Health by Sex....165

(19) Means, SD and T-Values for Attitude Toward Health for Males and Females....165

(20) Percentage Frequency Distribution of Sport Attitudes of Males and Females....166

(21) Means, SD and T-Values of Attitude Toward Sport for Males and Females....167

(22) Frequency Distribution for Significant Others Encouragement which led to Sport Involvement....168

(23) Means, SD and T-Values of Significant Others Encouragement which led to Sport Involvement....169

(24) Frequency Distribution for Orientation Toward Sport By Sex....171

(25) Means, SD and T-Values of Orientation Toward Sport for Males and Females....172

(26) Means and SD for Orientation Toward Sport by Country....173

(27) Percentage Frequency Distribution of Favorite Sports For Males and Females....176

(28) Frequency Distribution of Admired Athletes of Males and Females....177

(29) Percentage of Sample Reporting Specific Benefits Derived from Involvement in Sport....181

(30) Percentage Frequency Distribution of Negative Results From Involvement in Sports....181

(31) Frequency Distribution on Agreement with the Statement: "Sport has slowed my academic achievements"....182

(32) Descriptions and Reliability of Measurement Scales for the Antecedent Dimension....185

(33) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Past Involvement on Sport Involvement....188

(34) Standarized Regression Results of the Effects of Income, Occupation and Education on Sport Involvement....189

(35) Factor Analysis of "Groupism" and "Individualism"....191

(36) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Sport's Popularity on Sport Involvement....192

(37) Means, SD and T-Values for Female Sport Participation....193

(38) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Female Sport Acceptance on Female Involvement in Sport....194

(39) Oneway Analysis of "Groupism" and "Individualism" By Country....195

(40) Oneway Analysis for Patterns of Involvement By Country....196

(41) Descriptions and Reliability of Measurement Scales for the Attitudinal Dimension....198

(42) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Attitude Toward Sport on Sport Involvement....200

(43) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Attitude Toward Health on Sport Involvement....200

(44) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Perceived Athletic Ability on Sport Involvement....201

(45) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Integration on Sport Involvement....203

(46) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Integration on Canadian and Home Country Friends....204

(47) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Home Country Peer Group on Sport Involvement....205

(48) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Canadian Peer Group on Sport Involvement....206

(49) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Peer Group From Other Countries on Sport Involvement....206

(50) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Family on Sport Involvement...............209

(51) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Teachers on Sport Involvement.........211

(52) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Free Time on Sport Involvement............213

(53) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Work and Study Time on Sport Involvement....................................213

(54) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Travel Time to the University on Sport Involvement....................................214

(55) Oneway Analysis of Primary and Secondary Sport Involvement by Faculty...........................214

(56) Means, SD and T-Values of Sport Involvement for Students Who Live On and Off Campus............216

(57) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Distance From Facilty on Sport Involvement....................................217

(58) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Membership in a Sport Organization on Sport Involvement....................................217

(59) Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Identity on Sport Involvement...................220

(60) Means, SD and T-Values for Students Who Have a Favorite Team and Students Who Do Not Have One.......................................220

(61) Standardized Regression for the Effect of Favorite Sport Team on Sport Involvement............221

(62) Means, SD and T-Values of Secondary Sport Involvement for The Oilers' Fans and Students Who Do Not Have a Favorite Team............221

(63) Summary of Zero-Order Correlations of Dependent with Independent Variables................225

(64) Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent Variables on Primary and Secondary Sport Involvement..........................226

(65) Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Male Students.......................................231

(66) Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Male Students....231

(67) Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Female Students....234

(68) Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Female Students....235

(69) Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Undergraduate Students....238

(70) Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Undergraduate Students....239

(71) Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Graduate Students....242

(72) Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Graduate Students....242

(73) Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Married Students....245

(74) Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Married Students....246

(75) Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Single Students....249

(76) Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Single Students....250

(77) Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Chinese Students....253

(78) Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Chinese Students....254

(79) Summary of Path Analysis for Primary Sport Involvement....257a

(80) Summary of Path Analysis for Secondary Involvement....257b

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

(1) The Three Elements of the Socialization Process....71

(2) Some social roles associated with primary amd secondary involvement (Kenyon & McPherson 1973)....78

(3) Yamaguchi's model for the process of socialization into physical activity in corporate settings....100

(4) Hypothesized model for the Process of Foreign Students Socialization into Sport....128

(5) Path-Analysis of the Process of Foreign Students' Socialization into Sport....227

(6) Path-Analysis of the Process of Socialization into Sport for Males....232

(7) Path-Analysis of the Process of Socialization into Sport for Female Students....236

(8) Path-Analysis of the Process of Socialization into Sport for Undergraduates....240

(9) Path-Analysis of the Process of Socialization into Sport for Graduate Students....243

(10) Path-Analysis of the Process of Socialization into Sport for Married Students....247

(11) Path-Analysis of the Process of Socialization into Sport for Single Students....251

(12) Path-Analysis of the Process of Socialization into Sport for Chinese Students....255

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A. Introduction - Purpose of the Study

During the past decade, a rapidly expanding literature has appeared in sociology pertaining to the process of adult socialization. Recent information challenges the earlier view that significant socialization experiences occur only in childhood (Inkeles and Smith, 1974; Clausen, 1972). However, despite the increased emphasis on adult socialization, more questions than answers remain about the process in general, and about the role that sport might play in particular.

Mortimer and Simmons (1978) argue that investigators have been studying the adult socialization process in areas that are too tightly delimited, such as the problems of old age, the socialization of medical students and so on. They point out that more empirical and theoretical research is needed in other areas and that attention should be focused on the commonalities and disparities in the adult socialization process among these various contexts. There may be significant dissimilarities in the process, depending on the adult life stage, characteristics of the socialization setting, the socialization outcome, or the temporal patterning of the process (whether early or late with respect to each new role).

Moreover, McPherson (1986) contends that there are many more issues in socialization research that need to be addressed in the future, both in general and with respect to sport. For instance, there is a need to devote more attention to the process of reciprocal socialization at all stages in the life cycle, and to understand the processes from the perspective of the socializee--whether the novice be child, adolescent or adult. In addition, since socialization is reputed to be a life-long process, there is a need to place greater emphasis on the processes of desocialization and resocialization, especially with respect to the process of adjustment to transition points such as widowhood, loss of job, or migration to other countries.

Since the late 1960's considerable attention has been given to the study of sport involvement from a socialization perspective (Kenyon, 1969; Kenyon and McPherson, 1973; Greendorfer, 1977). Based on social learning theory, role theory and a social role-social system approach, a substantial amount of knowledge has been accumulated on socialization into sport. Research on socialization into sport includes studies focusing on children (Watson, 1975; Greendorfer and Lewko, 1978), female athletes (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976; Greendorfer, 1977), elite athletes (Kenyon and McPherson, 1973; Lowe et al, 1981), and the elderly (McPherson and Kozlik, 1980). Most of these studies have investigated how sport involvement is influenced by significant others and opportunity sets within several social systems. However, despite the recent diversified approach to the study of socialization in sport, few attempts have been made to comprehend adult sport socialization. This is especially the case for foreign university students.

Recently, there has been more interest in the study of socialization from cross cultural and subcultural perspectives (Devos, 1980; Knight and Kegan, 1977). Studies on these topics have identified significant differences in child-rearing practices between minority ethnic groups who live within the same dominant culture. Of particular interest to scholars has been the attempt to understand the mechanism whereby individuals are acculturated to some or all of the elements of the mainstream culture, versus being acculturated to the minority group subculture (Knight and Kagan, 1977). It has been proposed that variations in religion, family size, parent's education, sex-role expectations, family structure, and place of residence can significantly influence the nature and outcome of the socialization process.

Although there has been more interest in cultural variations in socialization research, McPherson (1986) points out that more attention needs to be directed to the development of social competence within a number of gender, class, racial and ethnic subcultures. More specifically, in all future studies scholars should account for variations in the socialization process due to class, race, ethnicity, gender, nationality and uniqueness in subcultural values and orientations. As McPherson (1980) indicates, "Within a given society, there is often a dominant ideology which reflects the social values and norms in that country" (p. 251).

In Canada, foreign students comprised around 5% of the total university enrolment in 1986 (Simard and Hockin, 1986). A recent statistical report placed the University of Alberta fourth as a receiving institution with 1,747 students, based on 1985-86 enrolments (Von Zur Muehlen, 1987). Although there are national and individual university enrolment statistics, there is a limited amount of additional information available on this population. University administrators have called for further research into many more aspects concerning the lives of international students (Report of Survey of International Students, 1986-87).

For example, the Council on Student Services sub-committee on Reports and Reviews (1986) voiced concern about lack of information on international students. Recommendation 25 (p. 16) states that:

> Since international students from different parts of the world differ in their perception and requirements, it is recommended that Institutional Research and Planning encourage and facilitate case studies and follow-up surveys of major national student groups.

Obviously, there is scant information about the sport involvement of foreign students.

Furthermore, within the sociology of sport sub-discipline, very little research has focused on the relationship between sport and ethnicity. The situation is more acute in Canada than in other countries, since the Canadian study of sport and ethnic groups is in its infancy (Redmond, 1978). Metcalfe (1974), noting this dearth of information, stated that only four Canadian authors made more than a fleeting reference to societal variables, and that only one of these studies dealt specifically with the topic of ethnicity and sport, namely "The Scots and Sport in Nineteenth Century Canada" (Redmond, 1972).

Several more recent studies have been completed on ethnicity and sport (McKay, 1975; Day, 1977; Negawa and Suttie, 1984). Although these studies have provided valuable insights into the relationship between sport and ethnicity, similar studies are needed in other communities in Canada (Loy, McPherson and Kenyon, 1978; Redmond, 1978).

Finally, McPherson (1986) calls for a "new wave" in socialization research. He maintains that no single theoretical approach can coordinate all the diverse findings in a satisfying manner, and that some synthesis of approaches is necessary. More specifically, micro- and macro-levels of analysis need to be integrated to explain different elements of the process and to explain the process at different stages in the life cycle (Wentworth, 1980; McPherson, 1986).

This study is an attempt to at least partially redress this imbalance, as it deals with adult sport socialization in a university setting. Moreover, the study focuses on a unique population: foreign university students, a group that to the author's knowledge has not been investigated before with regard to their sport involvement. Thus, the major purpose of this study is to understand the process of socialization into sport involvement among foreign students at a Canadian university. Specifically, the study attempts to explain the effect of antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions on the primary and secondary sport involvement of foreign students. The underlying assumption is that sport might be viewed as a facilitator of ethnic integration (Reisman and Denny, 1951; Tobin, 1967; and Mack, 1968). Thus, an understanding of how foreign students are, or are not socialized into sport, might facilitate the adjustment of these students to Canadian society.

A second aim is to test and extend the theoretical framework developed recently by Yamaguchi (1987). This framework seeks to explain how individuals are socialized into physical activity roles in corporate settings. The model includes antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions, while utilizing micro- and macro-level theories to explain the process of socialization.

B. Definitions

This section presents definitions of the key concepts used in this investigation.

Acculturation:

A sub-process of the assimilation process, referring to the acquisition of a culture different from one's own (Gordon, 1964).

Assimilation:

The process by which different cultures, or individuals or groups representing different cultures, are merged into a homogeneous unit (Fairchild, 1970).

Culture:

A collective name for all behavior patterns socially acquired and socially transmitted by means of symbols; hence a name for all the distinctive achievements of human groups, including not only such items as language, tool-making, industry, art, science, law, government and religion, but also the material instruments or artifacts in which cultural achievements are embodied and by which intellectual cultural features are given practical effect, such as buildings, tools, machines, art objects, etc. (Fairchild, 1970).

Cultural Values:

A set of shared beliefs that some activities, relationships, feelings or goals, are important to the community's identity or well-being (Broom and Selznick, 1977).

Ethnic Group:

> "A collectivity within a larger society having real or putative common ancestry, memories of a shared historical past, and a cultural focus on one or more symbolic elements defined as the epitome of their peoplehood. Examples of such symbolic elements are: kinship patterns, physical contiguity, religious affiliation, language or dialect forms, tribal affiliation, nationality, phenotypical features, or any combination of these" (Schermerhorn, 1970:12).

Exercise Involvement:

Participation in non-work activity requiring substantial physical exertion, such as jogging or group fitness classes, as a performer or as an active participant (Yamaguchi, 1987).

Foreign Students:

Students who are not Canadian citizens or permanent residents of Canada who are usually from another country. Other terms used to refer to this group are: "International Students," "Visa Students" and "Overseas Students."

Integration:

The process of coordinating the various classes, ethnic groups or other diverse elements of a society into a unified whole (Fairchild, 1970).

Involvement in Physical Activity:

Sport and exercise involvement combined, i.e., participation in physical activities including exercise activities and formal and informal sport (Yamaguchi, 1987).

Significant Others:

Those who exercise a major influence over the attitudes and behaviors of individuals (Woefel and Haller, 1971: 75).

Socialization:

A process of social interaction through which people develop, extend and modify their conception of who they are and how they relate to the social world around them (Coakley, 1986).

Social Role:

A set of expectations and behaviors connected with a specific position in a society (Smelser, 1981: 24).

Sport Involvement:

Participation in organized games requiring substantial physical exertion and skills, such as tennis, basketball or golf, as a player or as a competitor (Yamaguchi, 1987).

C. Justification of the Study

The significance of this study lies in its potential contribution to three major areas of concern: (1) adult sport socialization in the university setting, (2) sport and ethnic group relationships and (3) socialization theory.

(1) Contribution to Adult Sport Socialization in the University

Socialization into sport is a life-long process for most individuals. Despite a dramatic growth in individual sport involvement, studies on sport socialization have focused primarily on children, and on the process of becoming an elite athlete (Yamaguchi, 1987). Consequently, little is known about the sport involvement of students at the university level. This study, therefore, should assist in understanding adult socialization in general, and foreign student's sport socialization in particular. In addition, the study is aimed at the general student population rather than elite athletes only.

Furthermore, the extensive research and theoretical work dealing with adult socialization in organizations can be found in three largely separate literatures:

1. Socialization in professional schools, especially medical (Ondrack, 1975).
2. Resocialization for deviants in correctional institutions (Kennedy and Kerber, 1973).
3. The total institution (Zurcher, 1972).

Slight attention has been given to the process of socialization among university or college students. Likewise, short shrift has been given to the role of the university as a factor in socializing individuals into primary and secondary sport involvement roles. Unanswered questions remain, such as, to what extent have university students been socialized into physical activity earlier in life? Does the socialization, if it does occur at the university, represent re-socialization into physical activity? What does an involvement in physical activity at the university do for the individual and his/her life style? How does an involvement in physical activity affect academic performance? This study will attempt to answer these and other similar questions, in an effort to contribute to a comprehensive understanding of foreign students' sport socialization in the university.

Involvement in sport at the university is likely influenced by a variety of factors, including not only antecedent and attitudinal factors, but also cultural and situational factors. Focusing on multiple factors, rather than on a single factor, should provide a deeper insight into the sport involvement roles of foreign university students.

2. Contribution to Research Relating to Sport and Ethnic Relationships

Sport socialization has been analyzed from two broad perspectives. The first is socialization into sport, while the second is socialization through sport. These two aspects of sport socialization are illustrated in the following diagram:

Socialization Sport ------> Consequences & Effects
into the ------> Participation of Sport Involvement
Sport Role

(Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983)

Numerous studies on socialization into sport have been completed in the last two decades. However, none of these studies investigated socialization into sport as it relates to foreign university students. Coincidentally, there has been a dearth of research studies on the relationship between sport and ethnicity in the general population. Since Canada is officially a bilingual, multicultural nation and sport is a significant cultural factor, research into the relationship between sport and ethnicity might lead to a greater understanding of how and to what extent immigrants are integrated into Canadian society. For these reasons a study of foreign students and their sport activities appears warranted.

Although this study concentrates on socialization into sport roles and sport participation, the underlying assumption is that there are positive effects of foreign students sport involvement, both for the individual and for the university community. International Students face a "multiplicity of problems" (Weston, 1986) such as speaking and writing in English, coping with different teaching methodologies and dealing with academic stress. As well, social problems such as lonliness, making friends with local people, and ethnic discrimination may also be experienced. Perhaps an involvement in sport can mitigate some of these problems. It is possible that through sport participation the students will have more contact with local people and will adjust more quickly to the new environment than will students who are not involved in sport. It may also help them to cope with academic stress and to ameliorate any social and psychological traumas associated with emigration.

The above assumption is based on studies that view sport as an agent of social mobility and a facilitator of ethnic integration (Reisman and Denney, 1951; Tobin, 1967; Mack, 1968; Smith, 1974). In these studies, it is noted that sport involvement is one form of social participation that can be carried out within the confines of one's own ethnic group. As Phillip and Shafer (1971) pointed out: "It would seem likely that with their special patterns of interaction, sports related activities, and sports related role expectations, athletes in various sports might develop patterns of symbols, meanings, beliefs, norms and values shared among athletes but not with non-athletes" (p. 67). Furthermore, contacts between team members often go beyond the formalities associated with practices and games, since teammates often socialize afterwards.

However, it is noteworthy that not just any form of sport involvement facilitates the assimilation process (Redmond, 1978). For example, an Italian student who takes part in a traditional Italian sport in Canada, with only Italian speaking colleagues, is probably maintaining his home culture and resisting assimilation. On the other hand, an Italian student who joins an ice-hockey team, or takes aerobic classes with English-speaking Canadians, is probably hastening his adjustment and his "Canadianization."

Focusing on foreign students, this study attempts to contribute to the understanding of certain sport aspects of different cultures. For example, to what extent does the importance of sport in a particular country affect an individual's level of sport involvement in Canada? Along a related line of inquiry, it has been argued that sport represents a microcosm of a society and its beliefs. Thus, the Chinese emphasis on values such as friendship and cooperation might be reflected in their sport involvement in Canada. It might be that they tend to stay within their own ethnic group, preferring to take part in Chinese sport only, with Chinese-speaking compatriots. Finally, this study attempts to advance the understanding of women's sport involvement. The relationship between women and sport involvement might be further elaborated by comparing adult sport socialization in different cultures.

(3) Contribution to Socialization Theory

A recent debate in the socialization literature has centered upon the active and passive aspects of socialization. Wentworth (1980) notes that sociological theories of socialization have focused either on passive (or conformity) aspects of a socializee through a functionalist approach, or on the active aspects through a symbolic interactionism approach. He recommends a synthesis of these two modes, along with combining the macro and micro perspectives of socialization. The blending of macro- and micro-level theories in socialization research might decrease the polarity between theories pertaining to cultural transmission, and those dealing with the development of autonomous human beings.

This study is designed to contribute to socialization research by synthesizing the macro and micro factors influencing the socialization process through the application of a new model developed by Yamaguchi (1987). At the micro level, social learning theory and the symbolic interaction perspective are used to explain the socialization process. From a macro perspective, the cultural dimensions influencing involvement in sport are identified and explained using role theory. Thus, the present study should advance the development of socialization research by incorporating individual, cultural and situational factors into an analysis of the sport involvement socialization process.

D. LIMITATIONS

Socialization into a sport role is an ongoing process, which includes three dimensions: 1) becoming initially involved in sport, (2) one's present participation in sport, and (3) the consequences of a person's sport involvement. This study is limited to an investigation of the first two stages. The study explores the social and cultural factors that influence the process of becoming involved in sport, but it does not investigate the consequences of sport involvement.

This study is limited to an investigation of foreign students' socialization into sport at the University of Alberta. The sample may not be representative of all foreign university students studying in Canada, thus, any generalization beyond this university must be made with caution.

The optimal method for data collection would be to interview each student individually. However, the potential sample size made this option impractical. The choice was made to distribute a questionnaire to all foreign students at the university of Alberta. The results of this study may have been influenced by the widely-known drawbacks of self-administered questionnaires: (a) open-ended questions may have limited utility; (b) the researcher is not present to exercise quality control with respect to such matters as ensuring that the respondent answers all questions, meets the question objectives, or provides quality answers; (c) the study is limited to some extent by the length of the questionnaire.

It is always possible that other variables, not included in the questionnaire, are responsible for the results. For example, it is possible that the sample was biased toward those with a greater understanding of English; those who did not complete the questionnaire may have done so in order to avoid embarrassment or simply because they did not understand the questions.

E. SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the central purpose of the study, justified the need for the study, and indicated how the study might supplement the existing body of literature. This research is expected to have an impact on three major aspects of the socialization literature: (1) adult sport socialization in the university, (2) sport and ethnic relationships, and (3) socialization theory. Finally, the major limitations of the study were discussed. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature pertinent to the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter contains a review of the literature relating to (1) the development of the concept of socialization in sociology and psychology, (2) socialization theory, (3) adult socialization, and (4) socialization and sport participation. A summary closes the chapter.

PART 1

Introduction

A. Socialization Defined

Socialization is a process whereby people learn to become active participants and members of a society. At birth a child is virtually helpless, facing a long and complicated process of learning to live in society. The process of socialization is more than a formal education; it also includes the acquisition of attitudes and values, behaviors, habits and skills transmitted not only in school, but also through the family, the peer group and the mass media. This process is necessary for the survival of any society or social group, because it is through this process that individuals become culturally competent.

The concept of socialization is broad and complex and thus not readily definable. As Clausen (1968) has written:

> Socialization may be viewed from the perspective of the individual or from that of a collectivity.

> Further, individual development may be viewed generally within a given society or it may be viewed in terms of the experiences and influences that lead to significant differences among persons (p. 4).

In addition, the concept is applied differently, depending on the theoretical perspective used. For example, the structural functionalist perspective has tended to focus on explaining how individuals are integrated into the social order(Inkeles, 1968; Parsons and Balls, 1955), whereas the symbolic interaction perspective has emphasized how the social structure influences personality development, self-concepts, and social identities (Gecas, 1981; Stryker, 1979); a conflict perspective has been utilized in relation to such current social concerns as criminal behavior, aging, the use of drugs and alcohol, sexual behavior and so forth.

The concept of socialization, therefore, has a history of varying definitions and shifting emphasis. The early definitions were explicitly directed by a concern for the possibility of a society among independent individuals. The unit of analysis was at the societal level. Later sociological definitions assumed society to be a natural rather than an artificially contrived condition. The question of an underlying social order was no longer widely challenged. As a result, the unit of analysis for socialization research became focused on the individual. The research interest centered on the logistics of how individuals were molded for specific roles in society.

Within the sociological tradition, definitions were frequently couched in terms of cultural transition. Child (1943) wrote that "socialization is the process by which society molds its offspring into the pattern prescribed by its culture" (p. 18).

By the 1960's, scholars were convinced that socialization was a one-way process wherein the individual was the center of attention. They made the case that human beings learn to be social beings, and that little of the social behavior of the human being can be traced to genetic or hereditary sources. The individual has to learn to participate effectively in social groups. Thus, Elkin (1960) wrote: "We may define socialization as the process by which someone learns the way of a given society or social group so that he can function within it" (p. 4).

Wrong (1961) was among the first to suggest that socialization is a multi-dimensional concept:

> "On the one hand socialization means transmission of the culture, the particular culture of the society an individual enters at birth; on the other hand, the term is used to mean the process of becoming human in acquiring uniquely human attributes from interaction with others. All men are socialized in the latter sense but this does not mean that they have been completely molded by the particular norms and values of their culture (p. 184)."

Becker (1962) believed that socialization was an interactional process, because the human being is self-reflexive and must learn not only to place himself in a social group but also must learn the social definitions of behavior.

In sum, then, it seems that socialization has at least three characteristics. First, it is a process that involves interaction and learning. Second, it relates to the adaptation of individuals to their social situation; finally, it centers on how individuals develop social identities as a result of their participation in various social situations.

For the purpose of this study, socialization will be defined as "a process of social interaction through which people develop, extend and modify their conception of who they are and how they relate to the social world around them" (Coakley, p. 135). Coakley (1986) further explains that this definition emphasizes that socialization:

1. "occurs through social relationships (real, imagined, or anticipated) with others, especially significant others;
2. involves more than a simple one-way process of learning in which a person's self conception, and manner of relating to the rest of the world, is passively shaped by other people, and social events; and
3. is never complete, that is, it is a constantly emerging process involving the changing interface between a person and the surrounding social world" (p. 135-136).

The term socialization has a history of varied use. Many aspects of the term have been of interest to psychologists, sociologists and other behavioral scientists. There is an enormous body of thought relating to socialization, as theories are found in the writings of hundreds of scholars. The following section will present an analysis of the development of socialization theory within the fields of psychology and sociology.

B. Development of Socialization Theory in Sociology and Psychology

The models of socialization vary according to the emphasis placed on the importance of either the individual or society during the socialization process.

In the 1930s, 1940s and 1950s, sociologists pursued a model of socialization that stressed the role of society and culture in the relationship. Toward the other extreme, the symbolic interactionists concentrated on the individual in the process. The above views represent the ongoing debate about the comparative influence of genetics or environment over human behavior. It is often assumed that environmental aspects are in the province of sociology while the symbolic interactionist approach is closely akin to the psychological view, which focuses on the individual's acquisition of the requirements of society. Also, it seems that many of the psychological studies were concerned with learning theory, whereas sociologists have considered the wider connections between family, school, personality, and other environmental influences.

White (1977) points out that the use of the term socialization appeared in sociological and psychological literature in a systematic way at about the same time. In the early 1900s, Durkheim and Freud were addressing questions pertaining to the development of human nature. Also, Charles Cooley in sociology and George Mead from a psychological position were contributing directly to an understanding of socialization. In the 1930s and 1940s the term socialization appeared in psychoanalytic theory (Isaacs, 1933), anthropology (Kardiner & Linton, 1939) and experimental social psychology (Murphy & Newcomb, 1937).

In the 1930s, it was thought that social problems could be solved by socializing the nation's children properly. Kardiner (1945) concluded that to change society we must change the way we bring up our children. This approach focused on the production of socially desirable behavior in children and on the major deviations from the ideal personality norms.

Recently, in psychology as in sociology, scholarly attention has shifted from the effects of socialization toward the study of the process, and the recognition that behind the actions of the individual lies an actor. Research in psychology has concentrated on a learning approach, putting considerable effort into understanding parent-child interaction and the way children learn from significant adult models, while sociologists have viewed socialization from a variety of different theoretical perspectives. These perspectives have differed from those in psychology in that they have been based on real-life situations rather than on experiments in the laboratory.

A number of disciplines and approaches have contributed to refining the concept of socialization. The following sections offer a brief review of the major theoretical perspectives.

PART 2

Socialization Theory

A. The Psychoanalytic Position

Psychoanalytic psychology (particularly Freudian) had a significant impact on how scholars viewed the concept of socialization. Wrong (1961) pinpointed the key element of influence: "Freud's theory of the superego has become the source and model of the conception of the internalization of social norms that today plays so important a part in sociological thinking" (p. 186). According to Freud, the superego is

> "the successor and representative of the parents who supervised the child's actions in the first period of his life. In the course of the individual development a part of the inhibiting forces in the outer world become internalized; we call (this product) the superego" (p. 71).

Freud proffered a succinct answer to the question of what happens when persons are socialized. The answer was revealed in the form of a tidy physical metaphor: an aspect of the world of experience is internalized, and is thereby incorporated as an element determining personality. Freudian theory attempts to reinstate the organism as an intervening entity between the stimulus and the response. In fact, Freud attempted to move from stimulus-response reaction to ego-controlled reaction (Becker, 1962). The ego operates on a reality principle, either repressing or deferring gratification of id impulses. By "reality" Freud was referring to the social world. The ego tempers the demands of the id in terms of social reality, thus, both the ego and the superego are generated by interaction. The superego is the introjected cultural value system. Introjection refers to the internalization of standards. Hence, through the introjection of cultural values and norms, the individual is able to anticipate others' reactions to his or her behavior in the light of these introjections. Loy and Ingham (1973) argued that psychoanalytic theory entertained the possibility of an internal dialectic between the individual's impulses and society, as refined in the consciousness.

White (1977), however, noted that the internalization model is a static one, ignoring the possibility of conflict between the socializer and learner being resolved or unresolved in favor of the learner. For example, the model does not account for a possible socializing effect by the child on the mother, or for contradictions between the needs of society and the requirements of the individual. Thus, it was no longer enough to focus on the malleability and passivity of the individual in the face of all-powerful social influences. White (1977) concluded that without some idea of the individual's own activity in shaping his or her social experience, Freud's perspective of socialization becomes distorted.

The psychoanalytic method was first tried on individuals with mental disturbances. Through the work of Freud, neurotic conflict has become the most comprehensively studied aspect of human behavior. Erikson (1963) reworked the theory, pursuing a somewhat different orientation. He noted that

> "psychoanalysis today is implementing the study of the ego, a concept denoting man's capacity to unify his experience and his action in an adaptive manner. It is shifting its emphasis from the concentrated study of the conditions which blunt and distort the individual ego to the study of the ego's roots in social organization" (p. 15).

Thus, Erikson (1963) wrote a psychoanalytic treatise on the relation of the ego to society, in which he emphasized the stage of early childhood. He suggested that the first social system, and thus the initial agent of socialization to which the newborn infant is exposed, is that of the family. Moreover, the influential role of play with respect to personality development in particular, and the socialization process in general, can first be seen in infancy, and its effects are well illustrated throughout early childhood.

Erikson (1963) recognized three stages of infantile play, which he labeled "autocosmic play," "microcosmic play," and "macrocosmic play". During the period of autocosmic play the child centers attention on his or her own body and play. Play in the microsphere is confined to the small world of manageable toys. Finally, at nursery school age, playfulness moves to the macroshpere stage where the world is shared with others. In this phase, macrocosmic play serves the socialization process by the fact that "much of the drama of childhood replicates the interaction of the larger society in which it occurs" (Stone, 1965).

In sum, then, psychoanalytic thought, as it has evolved in recent decades, places increasing accent on the importance of social pressures. Emphasis has moved from Freud's explanatory reliance on biological and instinctual factors toward a greater reliance on environmental and social determinants. Despite these theoretical developments, the passage of time has witnessed a diminution of the impact of Freudian thought on socialization. However, many researchers still incorporate aspects of Freudian thought into their frameworks (White, 1977).

B. The Cognitive Perspective

Piaget's research can be divided into three relatively distinct phases. During the first period--marked by the publication of five books (Piaget, 1948, 1951[a], 1951[b], 1951[c], 1952[b])--Piaget sought to find parallels between the thought processes of children and the philosophical systems created by thinkers of antiquity. He reckoned that such parallels between the wisdom of antiquity and the implicit world views of today's children constituted some evidence for a constancy of modes of conceptualization, which at least in children are relatively independent of historical conditions. In these studies, Piaget suggested that mental growth was not determined entirely by the unfolding of innate structures, nor entirely by the influence of the environment, but rather by the constant interaction of these two factors.

During the second phase of his work (marked by three books, 1951[d], 1952[c], 1954) Piaget sought to trace the origins of the structures of knowing to the sensorimotor coordinations of infants. As a result of these studies, Piaget was able to demonstrate the infantile forerunners of both the form and content of adult thought.

In the third phase of his work (marked by all of his publications since about 1960), Piaget traced the development of logico-mathematical thought from early childhood through adolescence.

Piaget's theoretical system has become a focal point for many child psychologists. Its popularity is in part attributable to its inclusion of all the factors that conceivably could be advanced to account for human development. To Piaget, social development is a function of an internal process, equilibrium, which in turn depends on activity and experience. Thus, Piaget stresses two central concepts, "accommodation" and "assimilation," which refer explicitly to a continuous interaction between the person and the environment.

Piaget is concerned primarily with developmental changes in cognitive processes, stressing both their reorganization over time and the successive emergence of new structures and operations. He has constructed a descriptive system in which development is portrayed as a succession of stages. Piaget's theory underscores the idea of viewing persons as organized systems of functioning, whose development is a series of qualitative changes in the properties of these systems. Movement from one developmental stage to the next is by the attainment of new structural properties. This emphasis on qualitative changes in the properties of formal systems, challenges the precept of development being a series of movements along a quantitative scale.

In his theory of development, Piaget has also dealt with the role of play in the moral development of the child, and with the role of imitation in childhood socialization.

The most famous description of the role of play in is process is contained in Piaget's (1948) classic work, "The Moral Judgment Of The Child." In this book, Piaget described how children gradually develop a mature understanding of the rules of a game. Piaget's analysis offers significant insight into the role of games for the "internalization" of moral values. Moreover, Loy (1973) averred that recent empirical findings strongly support the important implication of Piaget's idea that play and attitudes toward play can be used as indices of socialization (Herron and Sutton-Smith, 1971; Seagoe, 1969; Webb, 1969).

Piaget presented his most detailed account of the development of imitation in "Play, Dreams and Imitation," published in 1951. Extrapolations of his views, particularly those concerning imitation in middle childhood, had been presented in "The Moral Judgment of the Child (1948)." There were two major themes in Piaget's discussions of imitation. First, he described certain precursors of mature imitation that appeared during infancy. He assumed that the matching behavior displayed by the infant was enigmatically related to later imitation. Second, Piaget's theory stressed a close functional relation between intellectual development and imitation. This relation was emphasized at each of the six stages used by Piaget to describe early cognitive development.

Hartup (1970) noted that Piaget's theory was unique in indicating an interplay between intellectual development and invitation in the mental life of the child. Imitation contributed to intellectual functioning, and the child's developing intellectual capacities also gave rise to changes in imitation. Hartup did, however, challenge the accuracy of Piaget's explanation as he felt the theory did not specify the factors that determined age changes in imitations during early childhood.

C. Symbolic Interactionism

The connections between the sociological and the psychological views of socialization are strongest in the works of the symbolic interactionists, particularly the writings of George Mead, from whom many of the modern ideas of socialization have been drawn. In considering socialization, sociologists who utilize a symbolic interactionist perspective stress the interaction, negotiation and adaptation of the individual to the various social situations they come in contact with. The concept is still concerned with connecting the individual and society, with an emphasis on the individual's learning experience. That experience includes the learning of behavior appropriate to the various other individuals or groups encountered throughout life. The life-long nature of this model of socialization is in contrast to the model from "traditional" sociology which generally conceives of 'full socialization' occurring at some unspecified time around the conclusion of formal education.

Mead's (1934) work on the self underlined the narrowness of visualizing socialization strictly as the action of social forces on the individual. He stated that the mainspring of socialization was the appearance and growth of the self. It was in terms of the self that the personality emerged and the mind functioned. The self has been described as existing apart from the physiological organism. It was not present at birth but emerged from the interplay of the person and his social experiences.

Mead intuited the development of the self as a process by which the person can be both subject and object. That is, a person can act and also consider his act as if he were an outsider viewing himself. In other words, one of the essential qualities of the self is its reflexive ability, by which the individual attempts to stand outside himself in order to see himself as others see him. The image so acquired then enables the individual to react to this imagined other person's judgement.

The means of acquiring this self conception is primarily via interaction with other persons. Much of this learning takes place in the family setting where parents are usually the most significant others with whom the child interacts. One important feature of this process is that the attitude the child seeks to understand can only be understood through symbolic communication. Symbols are gradually absorbed by the child in the process of acquiring the language of others. The important characteristic of language is that it provides a set of symbols having universal significance. The term "universal significance" means that a symbol calls out the same response in ego that it calls out in the alter ego (Brim, 1966). In short, universally significant symbols are shared, thus, it is through the medium of significant communication that individuals are able to view themselves in terms of the attitudes through which others view them.

Once the symbols are internalized, the child may imagine situations and responses and judge how others will react to oneself and oneself to them. These imaginings will then be interpreted in action and in reality. The child will take the role of the other in relation to himself or herself, and will develop the ability to see oneself as a social object (Hagedorn, 1980).

Mead expressed the reflexive character of the self in terms of the 'I' and 'Me.' Both 'I' and 'Me' necessarily relate to social experience, but the 'I' is the response of the organism to the attitudes of the others, and the 'Me' is the organized set of attitudes of others which one takes on. The attitudes of the other constitute the organized 'Me,' and then one reacts toward those attitudes as an 'I'. As a 'Me' the person is aware of himself or herself as an object, reacting or responding to oneself in terms of the attitudes others have toward him or her. Self-appraisal is the result of what is assumed to be the appraisal by others. The 'I' is the individual's answer to others' attitudes when one assumes an attitude toward them.

The symbolic interactionist model of socialization permits different explanations for a single social situation. Within this framework, it is possible to see individuals developing particular views of their own socializing experience in marked contrast to another's view of an essentially similar process. These interpretations are communicated to the next learning generation, to be interpreted individually once more, so a picture of immense variability is built up. Thus, although there are broadly similar features in all theories of socialization, this model allows for specific and highly personalized contributions to be made by individuals to their social situations.

White (1977) noted, however, that there are three broad areas not covered in Mead's writing. First, his cognitive development model left out an account of the emotive aspects of interpersonal relationship. Second, his single notion of the generalized other was an oversimplification. As Meltzer (1967) pointed out, there were likely to be a variety of others for each individual in different situations, and at different levels of generality. Finally, Mead offered no details as to what was contained in the formation of the self. He was concerned only with the process, which meant that no research techniques emanated from his work.

D. Social Learning Theory

One of the most fruitful approaches to the study of socialization has been through the application of learning theory. It is the theoretical base from which Sears (1965), Whiting (1966), Bandura (1971), and Walters (1964), among others, have based their work. Learning, according to Hilgard (1948), is "the process by which an activity originates or is changed through training procedures (whether in the laboratory or in the natural environment) as distinguished from changes not attributable to training (e.g., maturation). Thus, Bandura (1969) and Bandura and Walters (1963) suggested it would be worthwhile to analyze the causes of behavior, first by considering the antecedent stimulus conditions, and then heeding the consequences or terminal response events, inasmuch as both are observable and controllable. In other words, if one wishes to understand the acquisition of any behavior, one must study the process which underlies the acquisition of any behavior, that is, the process of learning. It is useful to distinguish three major strains of learning theory which are employed extensively in the investigation of the socialization process.

(A) Neo-Hullian:

The most influential group of investigators using a stimulus-response analysis were the neo-Hullians (Dollard & Miller, 1950; Sears, Maccoby and Levin, 1957; Whiting and Child, 1953), whose theoretical ancestry can be traced directly to the learning work conducted at Yale under the direction of Clark Hull. These researchers share a common belief in the applicability of a general behavior theory, a tension-reduction approach to the problem of motivation which emphasized the importance of external reinforcement, and a willingness to include in their theory such intervening variables as needs or motives and expectancies.

(B) Bandura and Walters:

An approach noticeably different from the Hullian is the social-learning theory of Bandura and Walters and their associates (Bandura, 1962, 1965; Bandura and Walters, 1959, 1963b; Walters and Brown, 1964).

Although stressing the importance of external reinforcement in learning, these investigators stressed modeling, imitation, and vicarious learning somewhat independent of external reinforcement. Their basic approach to theory construction led them to question the value of secondary drive constructs (e.g., dependence and aggression), and other intervening variables so important to neo-Hullians. Bandura and Walters also differed from the Hullian tradition in the nature of their experiments on learning itself. As Bronfenbrenner (1963) pointed out, they have "socialized" learning experiments in that they emphasize the social aspect of learning and deviate from tradition in attending explicitly to the sex, age and occupation of the experimenters, and to the experimenter's attitudes toward the subject.

(C) **Skinner**:

A third learning-theory approach to the socialization of the child can be seen in work influenced directly by Skinner. This approach has become increasingly popular, and of great importance in socialization research (Krasner and Ullman, 1965). Zigler and Child (1973) mentioned that this approach is the most mechanistic of the stimulus-response theories, in that social behavior is viewed as being completely shaped by reinforcement histories. This approach limits itself to a "functional analysis" framework involving an investigation of the functional relationships between discrete response and stimulus events. The intervening variables of other learning theorists are seen as excess baggage. The only factors thought to be important in determining the functional relationship between a stimulus and a response are the child's past reinforcement history and his relative satiation on the particular reinforcers being dispensed to influence behavior. The same paradigm is viewed as operative in the acquisition of all behavior, and the most complex social responses are viewed as products of the conditioning processes described by Skinner.

Although pure components of each of these three positions can be identified, they all have a good deal in common. First they are all behavior-oriented in the sense of having as the ultimate goal the prediction of behavior rather than the understanding of experience or the classification and explanation of internal psychological structures. Second, they are all general behavior theories, putting forth principles intended to apply equally to children and adults. Finally, they have all been constructed as a reaction against the developmental approach (e.g., Piaget, Kohlberg).

Among the three learning theories, the social learning approach has become the most productive in terms of theory development, practical application and empirical findings. Two of the underlying constraints of social learning theory are social imitation, and identification. These concepts will be discussed briefly in the following section.

Social Imitation:

The role of example as an important force in the shaping of human behavior has been recognized for centuries. Only in recent years, however, has there been much interest in studying the influence of models in carefully controlled experiments with young children. Bandura and Walters (1963) submit that most social behavior is learned by observing and internalizing the behavior of others, without the observer actually reproducing the observed behavior and receiving direct reinforcement, as in the traditional stimulus-response pattern of learning. Bandura and Walters demonstrated experimentally that behavior can be acquired through observations of models, without direct reinforcement to the observer. The models for this imitation process are both exemplary (e.g., parents, siblings, peers, and teachers) and symbolic (e.g., television personalities or fictional characters with whom the individual does not have face-to-face contact). Thus, Bandura and Walters (1963) claimed that the mass media could become a powerful source for the acquisition of behavior through observational learning.

Whether one emphasizes modeling, direct reinforcement, or both, parents still play a crucial role in the socialization process for any social-learning theorist. Parents serve as the most consistently available and salient models, as well as the primary dispensers of reinforcement during the early part of a child's life. Furthermore, although a child may acquire elements of social behavior through the observation of a model with whom he is not directly interacting, the performance of the behavior stands to be controlled by the immediate reinforcement contingencies; hence the people who are in a position to control these contingencies will have the greatest effect upon what the child does, even if they have less exclusive control over what that child learns how to do. The parents, then, are the central figures in early socialization, for in social learning theory, early learned behaviors tend to persist. Behavior, once learned, will be maintained unless the reinforcement contingencies are changed. Stability of behavior tends to be maintained by the propensity of the individual to seek or stay in environments which will not demand change of him. Therefore, socialization during early childhood is of great importance for the social-learning theorist, and much of the research stemming from this point of view has dealt with the preschool child and the effects of variations in parental socialization practices (Hatch, 1988; Dubois and Jonker, 1988; Allen, M., 1989). Scholars now realize that the process operates over the entire life cycle and may lead to the learning of deviant as well as normative behavioral patterns, depending on the models available (Gaines et al, 1988).

Identification:

"Identification can be said to occur when an individual adopts behavior derived from another person or group because this behavior is associated with a satisfying self-defining relationship to this person or group" (Kelman, 1961).

Gewirtz (1969) noted that although many would agree that the child can learn to imitate a range of behaviors on the basis of simple instrumental (trial-and-error) learning, imitation has typically been treated in the literature as somehow distinct from identification. For example, Kohlberg (1963) has proposed that identification differs from imitation in three ways: (1) identification is a "motivated disposition" because of the intrinsic reinforcing properties of perceived similarity to the model; (2) similarity between the behavior of the subject and the model often occurs in the absence of the model; (3) many aspects of the model's behavior are reproduced. These factors appear to have been the bases for many theorists' considering identification as a "higher-order" process than generalized imitation.

However, within the learning theory tradition, Miller and Dollard (1941) suggested that imitation mechanisms are also involved in identification. Also, Bandura (1962) and Bandura and Walters (1963) have noted that observational learning is often termed "imitation" in behavior theory approaches to personality development, and "identification" in more traditional personality theories, with no substantial differences between the two usages.

Loy and Ingham (1973) pointed out that identification is one explanation of imitative behavior. An individual attempts to acquire an identity by imitating persons who already possess that identity. For example, parents are usually the initial interpreters of the external world for their children. Consequently, their interpretations become the first reality to which children learn to adapt. As a result, the child is likely to repeat these behaviors and to eventually internalize them (Aronfreed, 1969; Scott, 1971). The process fosters a high degree of similarity between parents' and children's behavioral orientations, values and beliefs (see Campbell, 1969). These similarities provide a basis for identification with parents and the formation of an individual identity (Bandura, 1969). In addition, Secord and Backman (1964) presented seven principles which account for the choice of a model. In short, they argue that models are chosen for imitation mainly because they have coercive power (they can reward or punish), or because they are capable of obtaining rewards or approval, which the individual also desires but may not have access to.

The following section examines two other theoretical orientations which have utilized the mechanism of identification: "role theory" and "reference group" theory.

Role Theory:

Role theory conceives of society as a stage and views the individual as a social actor. Goffman (1959) attempted to illustrate and analyze the complicated ways in which men and women construct images of their selves in encounters with significant others. Like actors on the stage, we are perpetually concerned with presenting images of ourselves to the various audiences we engage. Our conduct is shaped by our desire to leave an acceptable impression in the minds of those we deem important to us. In order to do so, we must hide unacceptable aspects "backstage" so as to present an unblemished image "front stage." Goffman's model of human actors assumes that it is senseless to ask what a man or a woman really is, since we are always acting. Ego's conduct is always molded through dramaturgical encounters with various alters. For example, we may play the role of deferential students in encounters with professors or dutiful sons and daughters with our parents.

The task of socialization, therefore, is to ensure adequacy of performance from each and every actor. Each of us learns to share definitions of the situations in which we place ourselves. Through interaction we attempt to perfect our performance in the identities we assume. The term role, therefore, is usually applied to situations in which the prescriptions for interaction are culturally defined. A role, then, may be defined as "a typified response to a typified expectation" (Berger, 1963).

In role theory, socialization is seen as a process of acquisition of appropriate norms, attitudes, self-images, values and role behaviors that enable acceptance in the group and effective performance of new roles (Brim and Wheeler, 1966). The key concepts in role theory are "social structure", "status," and "role"; within the social structure an individual has a social position and status, and attached to each status is a pattern of expected behavior, or role. For the role theorist, identification is equated with "role-playing," for example, identification with the father is synonymous with "playing the father's role." The child's role-playing is purposive because it provides practice for significant adult behavior (Maccoby, 1959).

Two factors determine the extent of the child's role playing: (1) frequency and intensity (or intimacy) of the child's interaction with the model, and (2) the model's power over the child, that is, their control of resources that are valuable to the child (Maccoby, 1959). The child imitates significant others (those with whom he identifies), who aid him in self-definition. In taking the role of others the child begins to develop a self-system, that is, begins to view oneself as a social object. Through imitative interaction and performance, the child learns the prescribed behavior for the statuses he or she occupies, and realizes that the prescribed behavior patterns are bolstered by social norms. The child learns that only a limited range of behavior is acceptable to his significant and generalized others.

Reference Group Theory:

Reference groups and individuals are

> "models, sources of personal ambitions and standards, the admired types accepted as patterns to be followed as closely as possible, bases for self comparison, guides in the choice of goals, and means for achievement" (Young, 1969).

Merton (1963) distinguished several types of reference groups. A major distinction he made was between positive and negative reference groups. The former's standards are valued and adopted while the standards of the latter are rejected. "Reference-group theory indicates that social affiliation or disaffiliation normally carries with it specific cognitive commitments" (Berger, 1963).

Each individual has several sources of reference in rough relation to their diversity of social roles, although one reference group commonly provides patterns for more than one role. Such reference groups and individuals become basic socialization agencies. The degree of influence a reference group exerts in the formation of attitudes among its members is dependent on the degree to which any individual member identifies with the group. However, it should be recognized that by means of "anticipatory socialization," non-membership groups may also serve as important reference groups and thus substantially influence attitude development. For example, the son of an unskilled worker who aspires to middle-class status may tend to adopt middle-class values and attitudes.

In summary, the various learning theory approaches have become the most popular in the study of socialization. The social learning theory of Bandura and Walters, role theory and reference group theory have had the most currency with scholars in the area.

E. Social Structural Analysis

Talcott Parsons was one of the first sociologists to recognize that social structure determines socialization patterns. Parsons (1951) defined socialization as follows:

> "The acquisition of the requisite orientations for satisfactory functioning in a role is a learning process, but it is not learning in general, but a particular part of learning. this process will be called the process of socialization..." (p. 205).

Later he noted that "Socialization is...the learning of any orientations of functional significance to the operation of a system of complementary role-expectations...." (p. 208)

It is evident that his definition addressed the whole search for a relationship between collective and individual entities.

Parsons created a scheme whereby the individual could be absorbed into the system. The concept of socialization was a major link in his grand synthesis, since it provided the means to bring the individual under full social control. He envisioned a "society" that relied heavily on integration, order and consensus. The individual actor was portrayed accordingly, thus, the actor's survival was possible in such an "over-integrated" system because it was no longer necessary to mold, domesticate and render human nature fit for society; all that was needed was for a person to learn the proper role expectations to become a functioning element in the social system. Such role learning was what Parsons called socialization, but the concept was more complex than that. The actors really only existed in the Parsonian framework as properly functioning elements. Socialization brought actors into existence, or constituted them according to socially sanctioned expectations and need dispositions. Without the proper "articulation" of actors, based on consensual values and reciprocal motives, there was simply no system per se--a state of anomie prevailed.

Parsons not only wrote of childhood (primary) socialization, he also discussed secondary socialization. He felt that primary socialization was the relatively nonspecific process of personality development in children. This stage was also seen as the basis for the transition to roles encountered in later life. On the other hand, secondary socialization was specific (adult) role-oriented learning of functional utility for the system. Whereas the "actor" was the significant unit for the personality system, the "role" was the basic unit of the social system; during secondary socialization they met and became one (Parsons and Bales, 1955).

Although Parson's influence in studies of socialization was quite marked, Wentworth (1980) criticized Parson's ideas, stating that his sociology gave us no serious reason to consider social conditions similar to anomie; his was a sociology of order, of institutionalization and of normative patterns. Parson's theory was motivated by the "problem of order" in society; but rather than producing an actual solution, his design was a denial of the problem. Lockwood (1956) explained that for Parsons, the relationship between the establishment and the lower socioeconomic groups was one of grooming and interdependency among individuals who shared the master symbols of legitimization, but whose stations in life had been granted different values according to the functional requisites of the system. Actors, then, were either appropriated by the system as they were constituted by it (socialization), or else they were, by definition, external to the social system (socialization failure).

Indeed, Parsons was severely denounced by Wrong (1961), for creating the "oversocialized concept of man." Wrong maintained that socialization was obviously not as successful as society might wish it to be. Social change does occur and individual creativity is evident, and although there is an ongoing general social order, complete social order is probably not humanly possible. The individual is capable of redefining situations using rules as guides, but not mandates. In other words, human conduct is not totally shaped by common norms or institutionalized patterns of interaction.

F. Summary

In the preceding sections I have reviewed several theories and approaches to the study of socialization. Each of the positions continues, even in isolation, to contribute to our total knowledge of the socialization process. However, because of the interdisciplinary and the multifaceted character of the process, it is unlikely that any one theoretical perspective can ever adequately account for the process or end product. Scholars who share this viewpoint suggest that an integration and synthesis of theories within sociology, and between sociology, psychology and related disciplines, is needed.

McPherson (1986) called for a "new wave" in socialization research. He submits that an adequate explanation or theory must account for both the transmission of culture and for the development of autonomous human beings. In other words, there are two interacting levels of analysis for which different theoretical approaches are most appropriate: (1) Macrolevel theories, in which more universal outcomes occur, conformity to societal norms is the goal, learnings are generalized from one social situation to another, the process is more predictable, and the individual passively responds to socializers and the environment; (2) Microlevel theories, in which individual learning and situation-specific outcomes are the goals, the process is less predictable, and depends more on the active involvement of the socializee in determining the outcomes. At the macrolevel, social learning theory, role theory and reference group theory are likely to be more powerful explanatory frameworks. On the other hand, theories that account for interpersonal interaction, such as the symbolic interactionist perspective, are more useful at the microlevel. Thus, to advance knowledge there should be attempts to examine the process from a blending of theoretical perspectives. No single theoretical approach has yet coordinated all these diverse streams in a satisfying manner. The author concurs with the scholars who claim there are advantages in combining the macro- and microlevel approaches to explain different elements of the socialization process (Wentworth, 1980; Smith, et al., 1980).

In addition, social scientists have recognized that the use of one perspective is not likely to account for the life-long process of socialization, and that particular theoretical perspectives may be more appropriate at different stages in the life cycle. For example, during infancy and early childhood, the social and cognitive development theories may be most appropriate to explain the process. A symbolic interactionist perspective may be more fitting during adolescence and throughout adulthood (Dowd, 1980; George, 1980).

In an attempt to make the most effective use of the above theories, this study merges the symbolic interactionist perspective and the social learning theory. The social learning theory is a "general" behavior theory, in that the guiding principles are intended to apply equally to children and adults. It is a highly positive and practical theory, being aimed at precise formulation and objective measurement. Moreover, the social learning approach has become the most popular and most productive both in theory and in empirical findings (Bandura and Walter, 1963; Brim and Wheeler, 1966; Clausen, 1968). Thus, Kenyon and McPherson (1973) suggest that, given the nature of sport, and given that the major characteristics associated with sport roles are probably acquired after early childhood, a social learning approach would seem to be most fruitful for the study of sport socialization. Within the social learning approach, role theory and reference group theory may also contribute to the understanding of sport socialization.

It is also important to consider the process of socialization from the symbolic interactionist perspective. Sociologists working from a symbolic interactionist perspective emphasize the adaptation of the individual to the various social situations they face. The concept is still about fitting individual and society together, but the emphasis is on the individual's learning experience, and includes the learning of behavior appropriate to the various other individuals or groups encountered throughout life. This model views socialization from birth to death, thus, life-long socialization becomes a cumulative process whereby the individual is able to adapt existing knowledge and behavior to new situations. A bank of social values, attitudes and actions is built up which allows the social actor to draw on these in combination to suit the needs of changing role situations. The symbolic interaction perspective is able to explain how a socializee's perceptions of their athletic abilities influence their sport involvement later in life.

Since this study deals with students who emigrated from other countries, the symbolic interactionist perspective may be a powerful explanatory framework. These students find themselves in settings very different from those in which they were reared. They must adjust to unfamiliar viewpoints and a new life style. Thus, the changes in social location may necessitate substantial changes in self-image, identity, attitude and behavior. The symbolic interactionist perspective attempts to explain these changes.

This study will refrain from using the developmental theories (Freud and Piaget) for several reasons. First, many of the psychoanalytic statements, particularly the early ones, were theoretical accounts of the developmental sequence in personality, with little real attempt to disentangle the roles of learning and biological growth. Second, Freud and the neo-Freudians assumed that the socialization process ended with adolescence. Third, the Freudian system has never been adequately applied to the kind of use increasingly demanded of psychological theory, that is, to the clear formulation of general propositions about observable facts, followed by the observational test of the definite predictions that result. Finally, Freudian thought does not deal adequately with a variety of rationally directed and socially oriented behaviors that are of central importance to human socialization, and is thus a incomplete approach to the subject.

In addition, the notion that human development goes through an orderly succession of stages, each having its distinctive structure, has evoked much criticism, in particularly directed against Piaget's version of stage theory. English (1957) found little agreement among experts in the age ranges assigned to particular stages in development, and concluded that all the present stage distinctions are arbitrary. Furthermore, Piaget's developmental approach presents a number of unresolved issues. The individual and the environment appear to be treated as something of a constant. As others have noted (Hunt, 1961; Wolff, 1960), nothing in Piaget offers much help or encouragement in assessing the role of either the internal state or the environment in producing individual differences in development.

Finally, the criticism most frequently leveled at Piaget and other developmentalists is that their approach underemphasizes the importance of cultural and experimentual factors in determining the nature of thought. They add that with proper emphasis on these factors, cognitive development will no longer be seen as moving through a series of stages.

The social structure perspective proposed by Parsons has also attracted its share of detractors. In general, the objections relate to the overall tidiness of the social world as depicted by his system approach. His construct is a world of equilibrium, not one of change and strife; thus change, if it could be described at all in Parsonian terms, is more like a "series of still photographs than a moving picture of history" (Wentworth, 1980). Parsons' model of the socialization process is relatively static. It assumes a high degree of continuity of the social order, so that socialization objectives and the means for attaining them will be well known and congruent. However, social structure may change and in conditions of rapid social change, both the objectives and methods of socialization must also change. People must be resocialized, otherwise the qualities they bring to their social roles will be inappropriate and maladaptive both for them and for society.

The following section examines the process of socialization in adulthood.

PART 3

(3) Adult Socialization

A. Introduction

During the past decade, a rapidly expanding literature has appeared in sociology and related social science disciplines pertaining to the process of socialization during adulthood (i.e., Brim 1976; Levinson 1977; Kimmel 1980). Traditional sociological thought viewed socialization as a learning process during childhood, designed to ensure the harmonious continuity of society. More recent findings have questioned this view; they claim that socialization is a life-long process (Becker 1970; Clausen 1972; Inkeles & Smith 1974). Although individuals enter the adult world with some anticipatory socialization, the socialization experiences in childhood are not enough to meet all the demands of later years. This is especially true in modern industrialized societies where dramatic changes take place, forcing adults to adapt and learn new roles. The term "adult socialization" in this study refers to socialization occurring after the completion of general education in secondary school. The process does not include all changes in personality and behavior that may occur in response to biological change and decline, but only to the learning that is relevant to social behavior and/or role enactment.

Two central themes appear repeatedly in discussions of socialization in the post-adolescent phases of life. The first concerns the degree of consistency in personality, and social behavior as the individual moves through age-graded social roles and groups (Brim 1968, 1970; Hann 1972). These authors aver that while the "basic" or "core" personality is determined relatively early in life, more specific changes occur later. These adaptions are in response to the acquisition of new roles, group memberships, and variable social situations. A second related theme concerns the difference between socialization occurring in adulthood, and socialization occurring in childhood and adolescence (Sewell 1963; Inkeles 1969). Distinctions have been made on the basis of the content that is learned, the contexts in which learning takes place, and in the typical responses of those being socialized.

In short, in adulthood, socialization is seen by many as learning more specific norms and behaviors (such as those related to a work role), as well as acquiring more personality features (Brim 1966). Adult socialization is seen as being more realistic because it involves a synthesis of what has been previously learned (Clausen 1968). Considerable socialization occurs after the socializee has assumed full incumbency of their adult role, (e.g. in the family of procreation as parent or spouse, or in a more formal work context). Finally, since adults have already been subject to many socialization experiences, they have more clearly defined expectations, which are resistant to change in the new contexts (Brim 1968; Rosow 1974). Also, much of adult socialization is self-initiated and voluntary (Brim 1968; Cottrell 1969). The adult has more resources and alternatives, allowing withdrawal from the group if the socialization process is not proceeding as expected. They may also be more capable of resisting involuntary socialization attempts (Brim 1968).

B. Role Changes in Adulthood

Continuous social and life-cycle changes create the need for adult socialization. Because their roles change, individuals cannot be thoroughly prepared in childhood for the attitudes, values, skills, identifications and responsibilities needed in later years (Sewell 1963; Brim 1966). Some of the role changes occur within the family and work setting; other changes result from large-scale social upheavals.

As individuals progress through the life-cycle, there are dramatic changes in role expectations. Benedict (1938) noted that some sequential age roles are sharply discontinuous; that is, there are contradictory expectations associated with earlier and later roles. For example, the child is socialized to be nonresponsible and submissive, while the adult is expected to be responsible and dominant. To accomplish this transition, some socialization after childhood is necessary.

In addition to role discontinuity, role invisibility enhances the need for adult socialization. To illustrate, usually the child has only one model of a marital relationship, that of his parents. If one parent is absent, even this relationship is lacking. Therefore, moving from the single to the married state requires socialization at that time (Rapoport 1964; Wagner-Winterhager, 1988). In some cases, adult socialization may be a result of inner developmental processes (Hagestad 1977). For instance, advancing age and impending death can cause major shifts in an individual's orientation (Gould 1972; McPherson, 1983, 1986).

In addition to life-cycle changes, other changes resulting from large-scale social processes may occur. Modern societies are experiencing radical technological, economic, demographic and social alterations which affect individual lifestyles and the roles they play. Clearly, socialization accomplished in childhood may not be sufficient for adulthood (Knox 1977).

These social forces lead to periods of prosperity and depression, which in turn affect the rate and direction of social mobility (Brim 1968; Inkeles 1969). These changes in social location may necessitate substantial changes in identity, attitudes, and behavior. At the same time, technological developments lead to the creation of new roles, which may not even have existed at the time the children were being socialized (Inkeles 1969). In the same vein, older adults may find that the skills they learned earlier have become useless (Bengtson & Haber 1975). New learning, though difficult for some becomes imperative.

Cultural and legal changes may also lead to the development of new roles (Cain 1976). The increasing legitimacy of divorce, the new conceptions of women's roles, and changing cohabitation patterns are examples of dramatic culture change. In addition, political and international crises such as war and revolution can produce adult environments not foreseen in youth.

These same social forces have led to increased geographical mobility, so that adults often find themselves in settings very different from their upbringing. Urbanization and industrialization have been responsible for large population shifts in this century. The resulting movement from rural communities to cities begets exposure to more secondary role relationships. The set of significant others becomes more hetrogeneous and unfamiliar viewpoints and life styles must be dealt with (Inkeles 1969). Moreover, migration between countries may dislocate individuals even more seriously (Brim 1968; Levine 1969).

Thus the process of "acculturation" is a dramatic form of adult socialization. The following section examines the process of immigration as it pertains to socialization.

C. Immigration

Immigration involves both immediate and long-term socialization for adults as they adjust to a new culture. Most immigrants bring with them a well entrenched culture, and in some cases a culture which has built-in resistance to ideas and values which do not conform to their new environment. Adapting to a new culture can be a monumental undertaking; Brim (1968) calls it the greatest continuing process of socialization that adults face. Immigrants have been socialized in one set of cultural patterns, including the motivations, abilities and knowledge necessary for active membership in their society of birth, only to find themselves, at a later point in their lives, in another society. The new society may stress other values and behaviors if integration is to occur. Thus, the immigrant is required to learn new roles, acquire new primary-group values, new skills and a possibly new language (Eisenstadt 1954).

Immigrants' process of adjustment may be long and painful. They have lost many of their old social relationships and traditions, while the new ones have yet to take root. This unstructured social situation engenders feelings of anxiety and insecurity (Thomas & Znaniecki, 1918-1920; Gordon 1964; Young 1932).

Considerable depth of understanding is required by immigrants learning a new culture. Some of these needs are met by the formal education system, while others are learned in a trial and error fashion (Hobart, 1969). The magnitude of this socialization process is such that some sub-cultural groups shun the new dominant culture. They prefer a lifestyle based almost entirely on the cultural patterns of their homeland. This way of existing enables the immigrants to control the socialization process by limiting their interaction to essential contacts with the outside society. Efforts to resist socialization pressures may succeed for one generation, but because their children must attend the local schools it means that after one or two generations the socialization into dominant culture will be complete (Gold, 1989).

Breton (1964) pointed out that immigrants must create a social network for themselves when they arrive in a new country. Theoretically, immigrants can participate in one or more of three social networks: their own ethnic community, the "core culture's" community; or other ethnic communities. McKay (1975) argued that the first of these three alternatives was the most attractive to immigrants. Contributing to this phenomenon were the following factors: (1) a desire among immigrants to maintain ties with the land of emigration (2) the immigrant's unfamiliarity with the cultural patterns (particularly the language) of other immigrant groups, and of the superordinate group, and (3) the existence of prejudice and discrimination on the part of the superordinate group toward subordinate groups.

Furthermore, institutions such as churches, schools, the media, and voluntary associations make it possible for immigrants to satisfy most of their social participatory needs within the confines of their own ethnic group. Thus it has been suggested by McKay (1975) that members of ethnically homogeneous groups will display a lower magnitude of social integration than non-members. It is likely that social interaction with members of similar ethnic heritage is likely to produce a consensus on subcultural values and norms, thus reinforcing the maintenance of ethnic identity. However, the propensity to remain in one's own ethnic group diminishes over time (McKay, 1975; Dargyay, L., 1989).

An understanding of the fundamental means of socialization among immigrants requires knowledge of three major concepts: acculturation, integration and assimilation.

Acculturation:

Acculturation is the process whereby a person acquires the cultural traditions, patterns of life, and values of a different culture. The process of acculturation may occur not only among immigrants but also among members of the dominant culture. A person can acquire the values and habits of members of a certain society through reading books, going to movies and attending to other forms of mass media without ever coming into direct contact with members of the society. However, acculturation is one important aspect of the assimilation of immigrants. Another concept which is often confused with assimilation is integration.

Integration:

Integration is defined as the process of coordinating ethnic groups into a unified whole. Consequently, an immigrant ultimately participates in all the social institutions of the host society. A person who has achieved integration is no longer segregated from dominant group members. The immigrant has access to all ~~occupations~~ occupation on the basis of the individual merit. With integration, there is a complete dispersion of the immigrants within the main institutional sphere of the absorbing society. The immigrant becomes inseparable from members of the host society in terms of their participation in the social organization of the dominant group.

Assimilation:

The definition of assimilation has varied from decade to decade. In the thirties, assimilation was regarded as a more advanced stage of acculturation. Assimilation occurred when a person not only acquired the values and outlooks of the host society, but also was sufficiently incorporated into its culture to sustain a national unity. Further, it was argued that assimilation was the minority group adopting the culture of the dominant society, without considering any change of the dominant culture in the process (Lesser 1933).

In the fifties, assimilation was regarded as a two-way process which involved active participation not only of members of the minority group, but that of the dominant group (Spiro 1955). In the sixties, the concept of assimilation acquired a psychological dimension. Shibutani & Kivar (1969) defined assimilation as a psychological transformation: "When a person of Irish ancestry no longer conceives of himself as an Irishman but as an American, he is well on the way" (P. 121).

In this study the concept of assimilation is treated as having three components: (a) acculturation, which shall be referred to as cultural assimilation, (b) integration, which is referred to as integration assimilation, and (c) psychological transformation, which shall be referred to as identification assimilation.

Ethnic Groups in Canada

Canada is officially a bilingual, multicultural nation. Statistics Canada (The Daily), 1987, lists 33 ethnic groups in 1986 (See Table 1). In recent years there has been a consistent debate as to whether Canada is a "melting-pot" society, that is, one where immigrants have been readily assimilated to become Canadians, or a "mosaic" society, where different groups may retain their ethnic culture while still being full-fledged Canadians (Mackie and Brinkerhoff, 1988).

Porter (1965) believed that, although Canada is often considered a model of multiculturalism, its mosaic is hierarchical. Porter demonstrates the British "charter

TABLE 1

Population by Selected Ethnic Origins, 1986

Ethnic Group	Population
British	6,332,725
French	6,093,160
Austrian	24,900
Belgian	28,395
Dutch (Netherlands)	351,765
German	896,720
Swiss	19,130
Finnish	40,565
Scandinavian	171,715
Estonian	13,200
Latvian	12,615
Lithuanian	14,725
Czech and Slovak	55,535
Hungarian (Magyar)	97,850
Polish	222,260
Romanian	18,745
Russian	32,080
Ukrainian	420,210
Yugoslav, n.i.e.	51,205
Greek	143,780
Jewish	245,855
Egyptian	11,580
Lebanese	29,345
South Asian	266,800
Chinese	360,320
Japanese	40,245
Korean	27,685
Filipino	93,285
Vietnamese	53,015
American Origins	32,235
Black	170,340
Total	25,022,055

From: Statistics Canada, The Daily, December 3, 1987 group" which holds a privileged status and assigns appropriate roles to the less preferred ethnic groups. Other analyses of Canadian society have also revealed that ethnic groups are disproportionately dispersed in the following areas: (1) the occupational structure (Hall 1971; Lucas 1971), (2) levels of educational attainment (Report of the Royal Commission Bilingualism and Biculturalism, 1976b), and (3) economic, political and academic elite positions (Kelner 1970).

Redmond (1978) states that whatever one's personal stance on the "melting pot" vs. the "mosaic" debate, Canadian society is a multicultural fact. Redmond claims that the degree of assimilation within the Canadian society, and the rate at which it occurs, is extremely difficult to evaluate precisely. It can vary from one individual to another within the same ethnic group, and can be affected by circumstances such as political factors, social class, environmental conditions, and economic considerations.

Much adult socialization occurs in formal organizations. The following section examines socialization within formal organizations in general, and in universities in particular.

D. Adult Socialization in Socializing Organizations

The extensive research and theoretical work dealing with adult socialization in organizations designed for that purpose can be found in three largely separate literatures:

(1) Socialization in professional schools, especially medical (e.g., Pavalko 1968; Ondrack 1975).

(2) Resocialization for deviants, primarily in correctional institutions (e.g., Streeg 1972; Kennedy & Kerber 1973).

(3) The total institution (Goffman 1961; Zurcher 1972).

Many of the same themes are emphasized in all three contexts, however, there are some important differences. First, some organizations may be considered total institutions, in that all aspects of life are conducted in the same place and under the same authority. Moreover, individuals are members of a large cohort, all treated alike, and with all daily activities tightly scheduled.

A second major difference involves organizational goals. Some organizations' primary purpose is to help the person learn a new role, (professional schools, for example) while others attempt to retrain deviants. A third distinction pertains to typical compliance patterns. Some organizations use prestige and normative pressure to ensure conformity (professional schools), others use economic incentives (work organizations) and still others, physical and psychological coercion (prisons) (Mortimer & Simons, 1978).

Universities are usually not viewed as formal organizations. The literature in the area (e.g., Reisman 1958; Barton 1961a; Corson 1960) tends to treat them in one or both of two major ways: (1) as institutions, that is, as being concerned with performing something essential for society, such as educating the youth, passing on the cultural heritage, providing lines of upward mobility and the like; (2) ss communities, that is, as providing "homes" or "atmospheres" in which persons may set their own goals, such as self-fulfillment and the pursuit of truth.

Gross (1968) states that neither of these two approaches seems to tell us much about the university, though they often reveal how professors and administrators in the university feel. Each of the two approaches has some explanatory power, but much of what goes on in universities is not "caught" by either model. Thus, Gross suggests viewing universities as organizations. In his own work Gross identifies various organizational models and deals with their applicability to universities.

The major agents of socialization within organizations in general, and universities in particular, are peers and instructors, or formal authority figures. While organizational authorities tend to communicate the formal aspects of the role, peers teach the informal aspects (Rosow 1974). Peer influence becomes more important when norms are unclear, (for example in medical school where the amount of material to be learned exceeds the capabilities of most students. Deciding what to learn is difficult because the relative importance of each aspect is unknown [Van Maanen, 1975]. In some organizations, earlier peer cohorts help to socialize the new ones. When this occurs, not only do the new recruits become socialized, but those who act as role models also find their own values being reinforced (Rosow, 1974).

Several studies have noted that two roles are being learned: the future role, to be assumed upon leaving the organization, and the role within the organization (Wheeler, 1969; Rosow, 1974). Thus, the medical student must learn to be a doctor and a student. They need to know what material to learn, how much to cooperate and compete, and how to interact with the faculty.

Based on the above discussion, this study views universities as organizations. Thus, a model will be utilized which has been developed for work organizations. The model introduced by Yamaguchi (1987) includes antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions. This model will be reviewed in detail later in this study.

In the following section, the literature on socialization and sport participation is critiqued, focusing on socialization "into" sport.

PART 4

(4) Socialization and Sport Participation

A. Introduction

The concept of socialization has been applied to sport in two distinct ways. The first is socialization "through" sport and the second is socialization "into" sport. Socialization through sport focuses on the probable consequences or outcomes of sport participation (Sage 1980a). In this instance sport is viewed as a medium or vehicle for social learning. For example, it has been found that through play and games children learn the skills, attitudes and values necessary to succeed in their society (Kenyon 1968; Webb 1969; Snyder 1970).

Moreover, as the child develops, play becomes more structured and complex. The child begins to participate in games, many of which are reflective of the cultural values of a given society. To illustrate this point Roberts and Sutton-Smith (1962) found that games of strategy are more likely to be found in complex societies, and are linked directly with obedience training. Games of chance are found where a culture's religious beliefs were emphasized, and are linked with training for responsibility. Games of physical skill are prominent whenever the culture places a high value on personal achievement.

Finally, it has been suggested that through playing games, children learn which behaviors are acceptable for males, and which are acceptable for females. In some societies girls learn that game playing is not appropriate beyond adolescence (Sherif and Rattray, 1976).

The second orientation concerned with socialization "into" sport is pertinent to this study. Socialization "through" sport treats sport as an independent variable, whereas socialization "into" sport considers sport as a dependent variable. Thus, empirical investigations featuring this perspective focus on the agent or agencies that attract children and youth into sport. This includes the acquisition of social, psychological, and physical skills requisite for participation in sport.

Snyder and Spreitzer (1983) present three aspects of sport socialization in the following schema: (1) socialization into sport roles, (2) sport participation, and (3) consequences and effects of sport. This study concentrates on the first two stages, namely, the socialization of foreign students into sport roles and their sport participation. It is also assumed here that sport involvement will facilitate the assimilation process of foreign students.

There is more research on socialization into sport than on the study of socialization through sport. Specifically, researchers have been concerned with the process by which people become involved in sport. Most studies in this area have been guided by social learning theory, along with the other leading mode, the social role-social system approach.

B. Social Role-Social System Model

The social role-social system approach combines psychological as well as sociological parameters (Sewell 1963). Three critical factors are stressed: (1) significant others (socializing agents), which refers to those people who exert influence on the individual; (2) socializing situations, which refers to opportunities or settings in which social learning takes place; and (3) personal attributes, which refers to physical, psychological and cognitive characteristics of the individual (Kenyon and McPherson, 1973, 305; see Fig. 1).

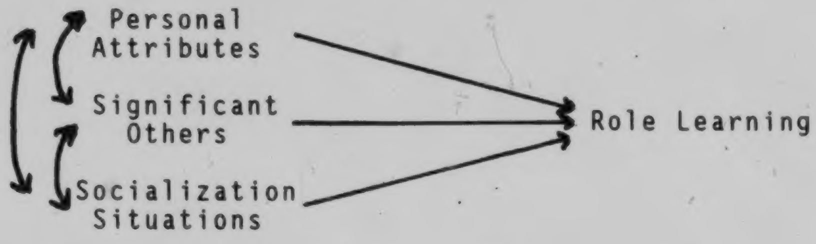


Figure 1: The Three Elements of the Socialization Process

Socializing Situations:

Socializing situations are agencies or institutions by which significant others or reference groups promote the internalization of the attitudes and beliefs of that particular personality organization. The first agency the child is exposed to is the family. Here many impressions result from parental and sibling influences. The neighborhood is another socializing agency, along with peers and other adults. Other influential agencies are the school, the community, and the mass-media. The community provides opportunities for sport involvement through private or recreational clubs and leagues. The mass media is an agency that socializes in several forms. Generally, the media consist of printed communication such as newspapers, magazines, and books, and electronic communication. In addition, the church may be an important institution, as sport leagues are often provided there for adolescents and adults.

Another aspect of the socializing situation is the community's opportunity set. In other words, it is important to consider the social setting (city, suburb, rural or farm) and the availability of facilities. As we know, opportunities to participate in sports like tennis or swimming are limited in rural areas, whereas courts and pools are plentiful in most cities (Kenyon and McPherson, 1973).

Significant Others:

Significant others are the individuals or groups who influence and promote the development of a socializee's attitudes, beliefs, and behavior. They may provide a model for the institution and society's norms, instilling normative values and behaviors by rewards or punishments. The nuclear family is the first agent encountered by an individual, which means that parents are mostly responsible for the socialization process in the early years. Other relatives such as grandparents, aunts and uncles, may also serve as socializing agents. During the childhood years the nuclear family serves as the major socializing institution by confirming ascribed social status, providing economic and emotional support, providing role models for the internalization of values, knowledge, and behavioral patterns, and providing the opportunity set for voluntary association involvement (e.g., youth groups) (Loy, McPherson and Kenyon, 1978).

In the nuclear family the child may gradually be exposed to more formal play and game situations. This exposure is closely related to the sex role socialization process, whereby boys and girls receive different toys and games "appropriate" to their biological gender. Moreover, the treatment of infant girls is usually more restrictive in exploratory space in comparison to boys. Boys are given more freedom to engage in vigorous activities with toys and are allowed to behave aggressively (Lewis 1972).

For young children, the values of sport are transmitted from generation to generation along with the values from other cultural domains. Thus, a positive evaluation of sport by the parents is likely to promote an interest in sport in their offspring. Further, children are more likely to become sport participants and consumers if their parents participated in sport, attend sport events, watch them on television, actively encourage participation, or use sport as a salient topic of conversation (Loy, McPherson and Kenyon, 1978).

In addition to the influence of the parents, sibling interaction may also facilitate or inhibit socialization into sport roles. Some of the factors that influence patterns of sibling interaction are the effects of density in the physical environment at home, birth order, family size, sex and age differences, and systematic differences in parental interaction with the different siblings (e.g., Adams 1972; Casher 1977; Portz 1973).

There is little evidence to suggest that elementary school plays a key role in the process of sport-role socialization (Loy et al. 1978). However, at the secondary level sport becomes an integral part of the youth subculture and tends to be highly valued in most secondary schools. The learning of the sport role is influenced by significant others who teach and reinforce the specific role behaviors. For example, a high percentage of Olympic-caliber gymnasts (Roethlisberger 1970) and track and field athletes (Kenyon and McPherson 1973) reported attending a high school where the students and teachers placed a heavy emphasis on these extracurricular activities.

The peer group frequently becomes a socializing agent before the child enters the school system and either reinforces or inhibits the ideas, values, attitudes and skills learned in the home and in the school. During childhood, the peer group introduces "taboo" subjects which help the child become more independent of parents and other authority figures. During the adolescent years, peer groups may provide opportunities to engage in a decision-making process to test leadership capabilities, and to usurp the role of the family in the socialization process.

Although an initial interest in sport is often stimulated in the home, peer groups may reinforce or inhibit subsequent development in this area. In most instances the degree of support or influence needed increases with advancing age In fact, the lack of a sport-oriented peer group often causes individuals to reduce their involvement in sport. Similarly, entrance into a new peer group can suddenly revive an interest in primary or secondary sport involvement.

During childhood and early adolescence, most of the peer influence is sex-linked. For example, during the highschool years, female athletes report receiving more support from female friends than from male friends (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976). Later in life, especially after dating begins, or after marriage, opposite-sex peers become more influential in sport involvement for females (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976).

Personal Attributes:

Personal attributes represent an additional aspect of the social-role social-system model. Personal attributes pertain to the qualities and characteristics of an individual's personality and its interaction between social context and cultural content (Clausen, 1968). The socializing situations and significant others are deemed important in developing an individual's personality, so that the individual can properly perform roles or face problems encountered throughout life. Further, personality characteristics, values and attitudes learned early in the life cycle will influence the socialization process at later stages (Brim and Wheeler 1966).

Most of the research concerning personal attributes considers certain aspects of personality make-up and its involvement with sport, (i.e., attitudes, femininity, and self-image). For example, Berlin (1974b) compiled research pertaining to personality traits and motivational factors for female athletes. She concluded that the evidence for personality as a factor in sport socialization lacks consistency from study to study.

In sum, then the social-role-social system model submits that role learners (with unique personality traits, attitudes, motivations, values, motor skills, and gender, racial, and ethnic differences) are exposed directly and indirectly to significant others in a variety of social systems (e.g., the home, school, church, playground, the mass media, sport teams) at various stages of the life cycle. The degree to which each system operates in the learning process depends on the role being learned, the sex of the socializee and the stage in the life cycle. For example, whereas the family and school are the most important system during childhood, the place of employment and the peer group become more influential during the adult years.

C. Socialization Into Primary and Secondary Sport Roles

Socialization into sport entails a variety of roles and expectations for the involved person. This process includes a number of behavioral, cognitive and dispositional dimensions (Kenyon 1969). Overt behavior can be classified into primary involvement, referring to actual participation in a game or sport as a contestant, athlete or player, and secondary involvement, referring to all other forms of participation, such as the consumption and production of sport (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Some Social Roles Associated with Primary and Secondary Sport Involvement (Taken from Kenyon & McPherson 1973).

MODE	PRIMARY	SECONDARY				
		CONSUMER		PRODUCER		
		Direct	Indirect	Leader	Arbitrator	Entrepreneur
ROLE	CONTESTANT	Spectator	Viewer	Instructor	Members of Sport Governing Body	Manufacturer
	ATHLETE		Listener	Coach	Rules Committee	Promoter
				Manager	Referee	Wholesaler
	PLAYER		Reader	Team	Umpire	Retailer
				Leader	Scorekeeper Other Officials	

Secondary involvement includes two broad role categories, the first being consumption, and the second being production. Consumption of sport is either direct, by actually attending a sporting event, or indirect, following the event through the mass media. Also subsumed under secondary involvement are a variety of other roles pertaining to the leadership, arbitration and entrepreneur designations.

The cognitive dimension of sport involvement includes two forms: first, the acquisition of information concerning rules, strategy and skills required in a sport contest, and the situation in which it occurs, and second, learning to follow the outcome of sport contests (Kenyon 1969).

The dispositional dimension describes the deep emotional involvement or feelings developed toward one or more manifestations of sports. This kind of involvement might occur without actual physical participation in sport. Dispositions of sport can be divided into two dimensions: (1) the acquired means of behaving, including behavioral routines, sequences of response and schedules of behavior, and (2) the acquired goals including attitudes, drives, motives, purposes, and needs (Kenyon 1969).

In sum, sport provides a wide spectrum of involvement roles. The roles that an individual chooses will depend upon the socialization process experienced. In this study both modes of sport involvement are examined, i.e., the primary and the secondary involvement of foreign students in sport roles.

D. Adult Sport Involvement

Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) indicated that sport involvement as an adult was greatly influenced by the orientation of the person's family toward sport and a person's sport experiences during childhood. The following factors were important predictors of adult sport involvement: (1) parents' interest in sport, (2) parental encouragement to participate in sport, (3) participation in organized sport programs as a youth, (4) a positive self-perception of athletic ability, and (5) involvement in sport by one's spouse.

In a Canadian study, Curtis and Milton (1976) found sport participants and sport spectators to be young males who were high in social status. It was also shown that married females were more likely to engage in regular sport participation with their family, children and spouses, while unmarried females participated in sports with men on social occasions.

Focusing upon women's participation in sport, Hall (1976) found that the most influential factors accounting for an adult woman's sport participation were her activity level when younger, and, if she were married, the interest and participation of her family. Hall concluded that the explanation for differential sport participation by gender might be found in the process of socialization.

According to a report presented by Fitness Ontario (1983), it was found that younger adults are more physically active than older adults. Furthermore, those who regularly participate in physical activity of some kind tend to be better educated, enjoy higher incomes and be employed in professional/executive or sales/clerical positions. In addition, it was reported that lack of time and encouragement were the main reasons given for physical inactivity.

Kenyon and McPherson (1978) examined the process of socialization into sport for young adults in several industrialized countries. They studied Belgium, Canada, Japan and Norway and found that primary involvement in sport was not a dominant part of these respondents life style. On the other hand, secondary involvement was a major part of individual's life styles, particularly when a country's national sport was involved. In addition, they indicated that adult male sport involvement was best explained by peer influence and past sport involvement.

Many sporting opportunities for adults are provided through voluntary associations. Some of these associations provide male and female members of various social classes with an opportunity to be physically active. However, Loy et al. (1978) claimed that social differentiation is still prevalent in that many clubs adhere to membership criteria based on gender, wealth, occupation, religion, race or ethnicity.

At the college or university level in the U.S. a professional socialization process operates to prepare elite athletes for careers in sport. It is during this stage in the life cycle that an athlete, already socialized to some degree, becomes fully socialized into the values, skills, and knowledges, essential for subsequent involvement in sport at the highest level. In addition, the university environment and significant others, such as peers, coaches and instructors, further socialize students into the role of sport consumer. Loy et al. (1978) note that in North America, those who are most likely to consume professional football on a regular basis are those who have attended college. Moreover, they have likely graduated from a college at which attendance at football games was an integral component of the social scene during the first semester each year. That is, they become socialized into the role of football spectator and this type of social participation becomes integrated into their leisure life styles as adults.

The literature on adult sport role socialization can be summarized as follows: (1) adult sport involvement is influenced by family orientation toward sport and sport experience during childhood; (2) active sport participants are likely to be young males high in social status; (3) the sport involvement of adult males is influenced by peers and past sport involvement, while the sport involvement of adult females is influenced by activity levels when younger, and, for those who are married, the participation of other family members; (4) while most sporting opportunities for adults are provided through voluntary associations, universities also socialize students into various sport roles.

E. Female Sport Socialization

One outcome in sport role socialization is the presence of sex differences in both the process and the outcome. The socialization process into sport roles differs according to gender. This may result in discrimination which often occurs because there are different expectations for the female and the male roles in most facets of life, including sport.

One way of understanding the process of female sport socialization is by examining the process from the social role-social-system perspective, specifically, the relationship among personal attributes, significant others, socializing agents, and female sport socialization.

Personal Attributes:

Most of the research pertaining to women in sport has considered topics which can be classified as personal attribute variables. The literature is replete with studies on attitudes, femininity, self image, self concept and personality. For example, Snyder, Kivlin and Spreitzer (1975) found that 65% of college women who were not participating in athletics indicated that athletics tended to detract from a woman's feminine qualities. Snyder and Spreitzer (1983) discussed and reviewed research on the psychological well-being and self-perception of female athletes concluding that these studies were not decisive because of their methodological limitations. Nevertheless, the studies provided no evidence for the belief that participation in athletics is psychologically stressful for females.

Significant Others:

When reviewing data directly associated with sport, the family and other reference groups are seen as important determinants of female sport participation. Malumphy (1968) indicated that the age of first participation differed according to sport type, and the girls received complete approval from their significant others. In another study Malumphy (1970) reported that family influence was a major factor in whether or not college women competed in sport. Not only did the typical female athlete have family approval but there was also a history of family participation in sports.

Greendorfer (1974) provided descriptive information relative to age of first sport involvement, type of sport preferred, and significant-other influence responsible for initial sport involvement. She found that 39.5% of the women in her sample indicated that the family stimulated their initial interest, whereas 31.1% became involved through neighborhood influence, and 23.6 per cent through the school. Thus, the school was not the initial agent for sport involvement for nearly three-fourths of the women. Greendorfer (1978) concluded that during childhood the female participants were more likely to have been influenced by peers and family, respectively, than by teachers and coaches. At the adolescent stage the influence of family was not as significant, as peers and teacher-coaches became the significant others. During young adulthood the most influential predictors of sport involvement were the peer group, and to a lesser degree, the family.

Recently, Greendorfer and Lewko (1987), found that if girls are to become involved in sport, especially at the competitive level more so than boys, they needed to receive encouragement from both the mother and the father. Furthermore, they must be part of a family that values sport highly and they must associate with same-sex peers who are also involved in sport. The chances of a girl being socialized into sport activities are greater if she is raised in a family that is classified as middle class or higher, if her mother was or is physically active, and if school physical education teachers and coaches provide encouragement and serve as athletic role models.

A more specific aspect of socializing agents is the concept of role-model. Ziegler (1973) claims that girls' social structure orients them away from the sports world; unless girls are under the influence of older brothers or young male counterparts, they are likely to move toward the socially preconceived feminized model.

Ordinal position and sex of siblings have also been significant factors in influencing female sport participation, and they may also affect role model selection. For example, Landers (1970, 1971) found women with younger and older brothers over-represented among physical education majors and women athletes. Lewko and Ewing (1980), Weiss and Knoppers (1982) and Berlage (1983) investigated female athletes' perception of siblings' encouragement. There were conflicting findings concerning the relative impact of brothers and sisters. It seems, however, that male siblings have had considerable influence in the past, while different patterns may be emerging in the 1980s.

Socializing Situations:

Greendorfer (1978) claims that the notion of socializing situations has been virtually unexplored in reference to women in sport. She does assume, however, that the factors used to explain male sport socialization would also apply to female sport role enactment. Kenyon (1968) found that the strength of opportunity set in male sport socialization contributed substantially to the enactment of sport roles, thus, it is possible that the same factors could explain female sport involvement.

The principal findings from research on female sport socialization can be summarized as follows:

1) The female participant begins sport early. Her involvement is influenced by family and peers.
2) Peers, family and teachers-coaches represent three social actors influencing female socialization into sport. Peers and family are significant childhood socialization agents; peers and teacher-coaches are influential during adolescence, and peers are the strongest positive agent during young adulthood (Brown, 1985;

Butcher, 1985; Higginson, 1985; and Yamaguchi, 1984).

3) Contrary to the proposition concerning same sex role models, fathers as well as mothers were found to exercise considerable influence on the level of girls' sport involvement during childhood, adolescence and early adulthood (Lewko and Ewing, 1980; Weiss and Knoppers, 1982; Hall and Butcher, 1983).

4) Opportunity set increases in importance through each phase of socialization (Greendorfer, 1978).

5) Although data pertaining to ordinal position and sex of siblings are conflicting, it appears that the female athlete is just as likely to have older sisters as older brothers. Also she is more likely to be the middle or youngest child in the family (Greendorfer 1978; Berlage, 1983).

6) For married working women, the influence of a husband who is active in sport is a decisive factor, and a single woman would be more likely to be active than a woman married to a nonparticipant (Laberge, 1983). Also, married females are more likely to engage in sport with their family, children and spouses.

F. Sport and Ethnic Relations in Canada

Traditionally, sport has been viewed as an agent of social mobility and a facilitator of ethnic integration (Reisman and Denny 1951; Boyle 1963; Young 1969; Donald and Griffey, 1985; Scholtz and Olivier, 1984). In this vein, the authors of a Canadian government report lauded the integrative aspects of sport in Canadian society:

> The success of French Canadians in the game of hockey underlines the fact that skill and courage in games is a human prospect, never the prerogative or merit of any one group of people. Further, we get a glimpse when we reflect on all this the part sport has played in bringing into the main social stream of Canada the new Canadians and those once in enclaves. In the world of the sociologists, sport acculturizes! It mixes people and knocks down class and cast and ethnic and age barriers (Report of the Task Force on Sports for Canadians, 1969:24).

Although it is virtually impossible to measure the role sport may have played in the life of each immigrant to Canada, it is possible to make some generalizations regarding sport and ethnicity in Canadian society. The first is that the multiculturalism of Canada has been and still is reflected in Canadian sport (Redmond 1978). Many immigrants in Canada try to retain their social habits and customs, often forming ethnic clubs and societies for this specific purpose. The provision of sport or recreational opportunities is frequently the focal point of these ethnic clubs, especially for males.

Another generalization is that sport can be used as an agent of ethnic solidarity, to assist an ethnic group in maintaining its culture and resisting assimilation. On the other hand, sport can also serve as an agent in the assimilation process easing an immigrant into the Canadian mainstream more quickly. In many ways, an immigrant is in a conflict situation, part of him clinging to the original culture, with another part responding to the new culture. Allison (1979), proposed an alternative method for conceptualizing ethnic or minority sport participation. This method emphasizes ethnic heterogeneity and takes into account the possibility of multiple identifications.

A third generalization arises from the situation in which some previously identified ethnic sports have been assimilated, like individuals, into the new culture. Redmond (1978) claims that the term "national sport" in Canada has ethnic significance. He presents various sports that might be called "Canadian National Sports" which in fact were introduced by different ethnic groups. In terms of participation and international success, "curling" might be considered a "True National Sport." In terms of commitment by spectators as well as participants and tradition, "ice-hockey" would probably qualify as the national sport of Canada to most observers. In terms of Canadians' commitment and interest, "Canadian football" might be considered as the national sport.

In a multicultural nation like Canada, therefore, the creation of "national sports" such as ice-hockey by various member ethnic groups, and the gradually increasing participation in these sports by other groups represents a demonstrable act of social faith in the process of becoming "Canadian."

Intra Ethnic Sport Involvement:

It is evident that some ethnic groups create their own unique sporting traditions, which may or may not be shared with other Canadians. In fact, ethnic group members may satisfy some or all of their social, political, intellectual and educational needs within the confines of their own group. Sport groups can be particularly effective in this way. Several authors have commented on the importance of sports like cycle-racing, basketball, soccer, and team handball, in keeping cultural traditions and values alive (Boissvain 1971; Jansen 1971; Nogawa and Suttie, 1984).

In Toronto for example, there were over 50 cultural, recreational or sport clubs in the Italian community alone, with the majority bearing the name of the immigrants' village of origin (Jansen 1971). Soccer provides an interesting case study as it is reputed to be the most popular team sport in the world. Even in Canada and the U.S.A. where soccer is not an indigenous sport, it is still a "traditional" sport which most ethnic groups have in common.

Soccer has gained the attention of those sport sociologists interested in the area of sport and ethnicity. For example, Lever (1972, 1983) wrote about "soccer as a Brazilian way of life," and "Soccer Madness," Pooley (1968) studied assimilation in ethnic soccer clubs in Milwaukee.

Pooley's study spawned two similar investigations in Canada, one focusing on ethnic soccer clubs in London (Day 1977), and the other on Italian-born soccer players in Toronto (McKay 1975).

As an exploratory study in a neglected area, and because of particular emphasis on sport clubs, Pooley's research was an important landmark in the area (Redmond 1978). Pooley assessed the factors that accelerate or retard the rate of assimilation of ethnic soccer club members. He asked two basic questions: (1) To what degree does participation in ethnic soccer influence assimilation? and (2) What forces within ethnic soccer explain this influence? Pooley sought to ascertain the role of the soccer club in a culturally heterogeneous setting by examining club policy as applied within the core society. He found that an involvement in ethnic soccer was not conducive to furthering assimilation, and that in fact the policies of ethnic soccer clubs inhibited structural assimilation.

Day (1977, 1981) studied eight ethnically diverse soccer teams in London, Ontario. He was primarily concerned with membership and membership policies in these clubs. Day concluded that, unlike the soccer clubs in Milwaukee, ethnic soccer programs in London were directed toward encouraging assimilation. Although London soccer clubs were originally formed in order to retain a sense of their cultural identity, contemporary ethnicity had been substantially tempered by the aims and objectives of individual teams.

McKay's study examined the effect of sport involvement on the assimilation of Italian amateur soccer players in Metropolitan Toronto. He found, contrary to Pooley's study, that sport involvement did not insulate the Toronto players from inter-ethnic contact. This variance was accounted for by the different recruitment policies of the clubs in the two cities. In Milwaukee, players were recruited from within their own ethnic group, whereas in Toronto the most talented players were selected regardless of their ethnic background. In addition, he found the magnitude of acculturation and structural assimilation to be positively associated with length of residence in Canada, and with education level, both in Italy and in Canada.

Finally, Negawa and Suttie (1984) claimed that participation in an ethnic basketball league was found to be associated with differentiation rather than assimilation. The above studies, therefore, illustrate how voluntary associations that sponsor sport for adults can have quite different assimilation outcomes, depending on their sport related policies.

G. Culture and Sport

Scholars have noted that sport represents a microcosm of society and its values, and that sport might be further elaborated by comparing different cultures (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983). Since this study deals with foreign students who have come from different cultures around the world, it is important to discuss the relationship between culture and sport. To describe sport in all the represented cultures or countries would be an onerous task. Likewise, it is difficult to clearly delineate culture types and specific sport forms. Despite these shortcomings, a few examples are given to show how cultural heritage affects sport.

Using Human Relations Area Files, Sutton-Smith et al. (1963, 1970) analyzed ethnographic data to determine the game preferences of children and adults across many cultures. They concluded that cultures emphasizing games of physical skill tended to be found in tropical regions, with simple economic levels and with few political conflicts. In these cultures, games such as throwing and archery were found. Games of chance tended to be found where food supplies were problematic, the community size was small and the social conditions were unpredictable. Games of strategy were found in large, relatively permanent communities, with a highly developed social stratification and occupational specialization. In this latter type of culture, child-rearing practices tended to be strict and achievement-oriented, with an emphasis on fostering self-reliance. Cultures that included games of physical skill, chance and strategy were found in the most developed of all societies.

The diffusion and adaptation of one country's sport to another has been described by Reisman and Denny (1954). They studied the British sport of rugby and the way it was changed to football in the American culture. To make the game suitable for American culture it had to be changed from a kicking game to a running and passing game. The game became much faster, thus satisfying the American desire for action. Also, the standardization of football rules was necessary to adapt the game to the diversity of American collegiate competition, and for the benefit of the audience.

One of the popular slogans in China is "friendship first, competition second." This slogan stands in sharp contrast to those used in North American sports. North American sports is usually measured in terms of the highest score, greatest speed, shortest time and so forth. In China, on the other hand, the concern is with effort and improvement (Galliher and Hessler, 1979). As part of the collective philosophy (that is, the emphasis on family, clan, commune) individualism and competition are deemphasized while participation in sport by the masses of people is valued.

Another example of how cultural differences affect a particular sport is the case of baseball in Japan. The climate and texture of the game in Japan are very different from the game in North America. For example, the game in

Japan can end in a tie, which is a reflection of the Japanese accent on process as well as product. Moreover, the manager and players stress the collective goal of winning the pennant, even at the expense of individual careers. Thus, a player is unlikely to challenge the system since team loyalty is paramount (Boersema 1979).

Individualism and egotism are negative personality traits in Japan. Instead, teamwork is highlighted, together with a remarkable sense of solidarity. On the job, workers consult and advise one another on improved ways of doing a particular piece of work, and many leisure activities are organized through the employer to provide opportunities for family recreation. In Japanese baseball, therefore, "doing your own thing" is strongly stigmatized; consequently salary disputes, asking for individual exemptions from team policies, complaining, attacking the umpire, criticizing the manager and so forth are almost unheard of (Whiting 1979).

In sum then, sport has both universal and specific characteristics. On one hand, sport has universalized rules across countries, on the other hand, attitudes, strategies, and organizational structures of sport often vary among culture or countries. Therefore it might be said that in a sense, physical activity is a cultural product of human beings and a mirror of the society.

PART 5

Summary

The review of literature presented in this chapter has been concerned with: (1) the concept of socialization and socialization theory, (2) adult socialization, and (3) socialization and sport participation. In the first section, a variety of approaches to the study of socialization were reviewed. The review concluded that: (1) in order to advance knowledge there should be attempts to examine the process from blended theoretical perspectives; (2) the macro and micro levels of factors need to be integrated to explain different elements of the socialization process.

In the second section the process of adult socialization was discussed. It was claimed that socialization was a life long-process and that differences existed between socialization occurring in adulthood and childhood. This section examined one form of adult socialization--immigration. The literature informs us that immigrants had to create a social network for themselves when they arrived in a new country, thus, they could participate in (1) their own ethnic community, (2) the "core culture's" community, or (3) another ethnic community. The section provided knowledge on three fundamental means of socialization among immigrants: acculturation, integration and assimilation.

Based on the review of the literature, it has been assumed in this study that (1) foreign students might be involved in sport with a Canadian friend, other country friend or a friend from their home country; (2) foreign students' attitudes toward social integration would affect their sport involvement. The concepts of integration and acculturation facilitate the understanding of the socialization process.

Next, a short review of ethnic groups in Canada and adult socialization in organizations was presented. These sections provided background information on the host country, Canada. Also, the major agents of socialization within the university were identified as they would be used later in the model.

In the third section, the literature on socialization and physical activity pointed out that the socialization process could be explained by a number of variables including the antecedent (past experience, social status) attitudinal (attitude toward sport and health, perceived ability), and situational dimension (significant others, opportunity set, work situation and sport team identification). Furthermore, it was shown how cultural differences affected sport in several countries. A cultural dimension which had been generally ignored in past research was included in this study.

Finally, it was shown that sport provided a wide spectrum of involvement roles. In this study both modes of sport involvement are examined: the primary and secondary involvement of foreign students. In addition, it was suggested that sex differences affect the sport socialization process. The principal findings from research on female sport socialization were discussed.

CHAPTER III

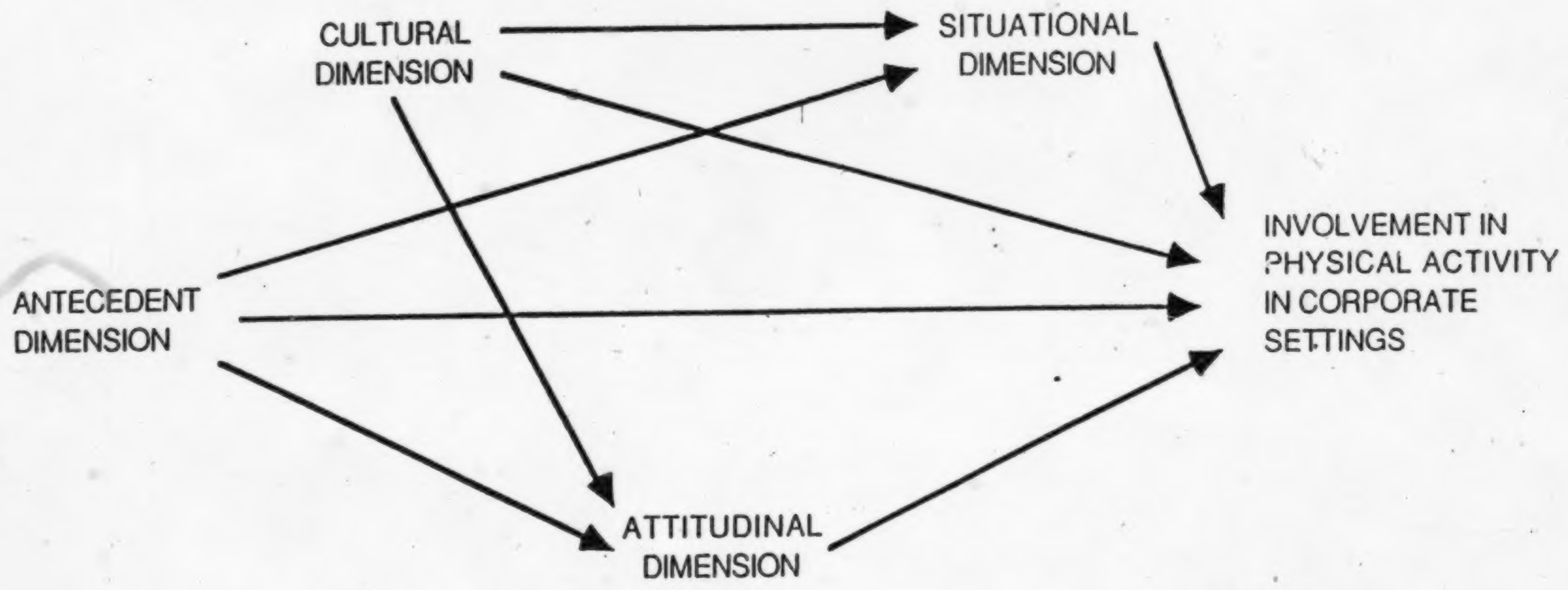
Conceptual Framework

A. Introduction

The conceptual framework for this study is based on a model created by Yamaguchi, 1987 (See figure 3). In his model, Yamaguchi offers four different dimensions that purportedly influence involvement in physical activity in corporate settings. Specifically, antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions were identified as independent variables, while the frequency with which people exercise and engage in sport activities were used as dependent variables. Although this study generally applies Yamaguchi's model, some changes were introduced to make it more appropriate for this investigation.

The basic assumption of the study is that socialization theory provides an appropriate vehicle for examining the learning of physical activity roles. Thus, a variety of socialization perspectives (social learning theory, reference group theory, role theory, symbolic interactionism theory and the ISSTAL model proposed by Smith et al.) are employed in an attempt to explain the socialization process. These perspectives identify the variables that are considered important in explaining the degree of socialization into sport involvement or physical activity. The following is a brief summary of these socialization perspectives.

FIGURE 3: YAMAGUCHI'S MODEL FOR THE PROCESS OF SOCIALIZATION INTO PHYSICAL ACTIVITY IN CORPORATE SETTINGS


CULTURAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
INVOLVEMENT IN PHYSICAL ACTIVITY IN CORPORATE SETTINGS
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION

- Past Experience with Physical Activity
- Social Status

- Cultural Values (i.e. the Contextualism Orientation)

- Attitude toward Physical Activity
- Attitude toward Health
- Perceived Athletic Ability

- Opportunity Set in the Workplace
- Opportunity Set in the Community
- Significant Others (Peers, Family, Instructors, etc.)
- Work Situation

- Exercise Involvement
- Sport Involvement
- Involvement in Physical Activity (Exercise & Sport)

Social learning theory posits that if one wishes to understand the acquisition of any behavior, one must study the process underlying the acquisition of this behavior. Thus, Bandura (1969) maintains that we seek the causes of behavior by looking at the antecedent stimulus conditions or variables, and then at the consequences. Moreover, he says that social learning occurs through observation, imitation, and interaction with significant others. In this approach, the social aspect of learning is emphasized. The key concepts used to clarify the process of socialization are modeling, imitation, identification, and reciprocal interaction. In social learning theory the goal is the prediction of behavior rather than the understanding of experience, thus, "role models," "sanctions by significant others," and "past experience" can be identified as important predictor variables of physical activity involvement.

Role theory views society as a stage and the individuals as a social actors. It assumes that the task of socialization is to ensure adequacy of performance from each and every actor. Thus, socialization is a process of acquiring the appropriate norms, attitudes, self images, values, and role behaviors that allow acceptance in the group and effective performance of new roles. The key concepts in this theory are social structure, status, role, and significant others. Thus, as an element in the social structure, an individual has a social status; and attached to each status is a role or pattern of expected behavior.

In role theory, "social status," "attitudes," "self images," and values are regarded as predictor variables of role behavior.

Reference group theory focuses on the identification process whereby individuals adopt the perspective of the groups they belong to and those they wish to belong to. Each individual may have several reference sources depending on the diversity of their social roles. Such reference groups and individuals are deemed to be basic socialization agencies. For example, the "peer group" and the family are important socializing agents in a person's sport involvement. The degree of influence a reference group exerts in the formation of attitudes among its members, is dependent on the degree to which the individual identifies with the group.

Symbolic interactionists are concerned with the relationship between the individual and society. Their theories explain the adaptation of individuals to the various social situations they face. The theory deals with fitting individuals and society together, but the emphasis is on the individual's learning experience. Essentially it focuses on how people learn to coexist with others, both individually and in groups. From this perspective, "attitudinal dispositions" and "perceived athletic ability" are identified as important predictor variables of physical activity involvement.

Smith, Maculay and Associates (1980) have provided an integrative approach to the study of socialization. They developed the ISSTAL model which includes certain key variables that they claim need to be taken into account simultaneously when attempting a comprehensive explanation of individual human discretionary behavior. Smith et al. (1980) claim that the ISSTAL model can be summarized in eight propositions, the first one of which states that "Human individual discretionary behavior can be adequately understood only by utilizing a comprehensive interdisciplinary set of predictors, state, and process variables" (p. 408). They identified six important factors in the study of socialization: (1) the social and historical context, (2) social background, (3) personality and intellectual factors, (4) attitudinal dispositions, (5) retained information and (6) situational variables. From the ISSTAL model, "social status," "opportunity set," "attitude toward sport and health," and "work situation" are regarded as important predictor variables of a foreign student's sport involvement in the university setting.

Although the above perspective provides a basis for understanding the socialization process, they do not account for the influence of cultural factors within each society. In order to make cross-national comparisons, there is a need to examine the cultural factors influencing human behavior within each of these societies.

The literature indicates that sport has both universal and specific characteristics. On one hand, sport has universalized rules across countries, while on the other hand, the particular approach to sport as seen through individual attitudes, strategies and organizational structures may vary from country to country. In this study, the general attitude towards sport in each country is identified as an important predictor variable of physical activity involvement.

Guttmann (1978) provides a model of modern sport that can be contrasted with primitive sport. This model is a useful heuristic device for distinguishing gradations in sport across historical eras, and between different cultures in the modern era. He uses seven characteristics to distinguish modern sport: (1) Secularism, (2) Equality of opportunity to compete and the conditions of competition, (3) Specialization of roles, (4) Rationalization, (5) Bureaucratic organization, (6) Quantification, and (7) the quest for records. Guttmann (1978) opines that the contrast among forms of sport in different cultures is evident when examined in light of these seven criteria. For example, in the premodern era and in some cultures today, sport tends to be ascriptive and usually limited to males, aristocrats and the leisure class. Furthermore, the process of socialization into sport appears to be differentiated by gender. This results in discrimination which occurs because there are different expectations for female and male roles in most facets of life, including sport. Thus, an examination of the equality principle between males and females in different cultures might be an important predictor variable of sport involvement.

Finally, from the review of literature, it seems that the group versus individual orientation is an important characteristic accounting for the differences in values among various cultures. For example, a group orientation is characteristic of the Japanese and the Chinese societies (Galliher and Hessler, 1979; Whiting 1979; Boersema 1979), whereas an individual orientation is emphasized in North America (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983).

Traditionally, the individual orientation, which is usually found in western countries, sees the individual as a distinct entity, separate from all others in most important respects, with separable beliefs, talents and experiences. The group orientation refers to the tendency of group members to be fiercely loyal and totally dedicated to the groups to which they belong. Moreover, cooperation, interdependence and intimacy among members of the group is highly valued in human relationships.

It might be assumed, then, that a foreign student who comes from a society that prizes cooperation and interdependence, is more likely to enact conforming behavior in the group. More specifically, in a society where groupism is an important cultural value, one tends to perform an expected behavior or a role within his or her own group. Thus, a Chinese student brought up on the notion of groupism would be more likely to socialize with Chinese sport in Canada. On the other hand, students brought up on an individual orientation might be more receptive to Canadian individuals and Canadian sport, and less dependent on their own ethnic group.

The above postulate is based on role theory and can be an important predictor of patterns of involvement in physical activity. As role theory suggests, the more intimate the role relationship between the actor's social circle and alter roles, the greater the tendency for the actor to accept that identification (Twiner, 1982; 378). The individualism vs. groupism orientations are identified as indicators of cultural values which may account for the process of foreign students' socialization into sport in the university.

Based on the review of literature, the following assumptions undergirded the theoretical framework of this study:

(1) Different levels of theoretical analysis need to be integrated, that is, the micro- and macro-levels need to be utilized to explain different elements of the socialization process (Wentworth, 1980; Smith et al., 1980; McPherson, 1986).

(2) Human individual discretionary behavior can be adequately understood only by utilizing a comprehensive set of predictor state and process variables (Smith et al., 1980).

(3) Socialization is never complete, that is, it is an ongoing and continuing process involving the changing interface between a person and the surrounding social world (Brim & Wheeler, 1966; Goslim, 1969; Coakley, 1986).

(4) Adult socialization is more realistic than child socialization, involving the synthesis of what has been learned previously and the development of modes of acceptable behaviors (Clausen 1968; Cottrell 1969; Riley et al. 1969).

(5) Much of adult socialization is self-initiated and voluntary. The adult has more resources and alternatives, allowing withdrawal from the group if the socialization process is not proceeding as expected (Brim 1968; Cottrell 1969).

(6) Much of adult socialization occurs in formal organizations through social relationships with significant others, especially peers and instructors (Pavalko 1968; Rosow 1974; Ondrack 1975).

(7) Each culture has different social values which influence human behavior and the process of socialization (Bronfenbrenner 1972; Smelser 1981; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983).

(8) Group orientation and individual orientation are important characteristics of cultural values accounting for the differences among various cultures (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983; Whiting 1979; Boersema 1979).

(9) Immigrants must create a social network for themselves when they arrive in a new country. Thus, immigrants can establish a network of social affiliations in the community of their own ethnic background, the native (i.e., receiving) community, other ethnic communities or a combination of these (Breton 1964; McKay 1975).

(10) The more frequently persons interact with one another, the more alike both their activities and their sentiments become (Homans 1950).

B. The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework is comprised of both dependent and independent variables. The dependent variables are primary and secondary sport involvement, while the independent variables are the hypothesized factors which may account for foreign university students' involvement in sport.

(1) The Dependent Variables:

Most North American universities provide opportunities for students and faculty to participate in fitness and sport activities. Virtually all of these universities sponsor competitive sport teams and provide high-quality facilities for these teams on the university campus. In addition, recreational sport participants also have access to these facilities. For example, at the University of Alberta the physical recreation and intramural programs provide basic instruction in sports to interested university students on a non-credit basis. Intercollegiate athletics also exist to provide competition between elite athletes from other Canadian universities. The possible range of involvement in university sport runs from unstructured light exercise, right up to formal competitive sport.

In this study the terms "sport involvement" and "involvement in physical activity" are used interchangeably (see definitions on page 7). These terms denote broad meanings of human movement, including exercise activities, and recreational and competitive sports (i.e., tennis, golf, jogging and fitness classes). The researcher is interested in any form of physical activity performed by the subjects. By using these two terms in combination, all types of physical activities can be identified.

There are two basic modes of involvement in sport, primary or secondary. Primary involvement refers to actual involvement in exercise and sport activities as a player, a competitor, a performer or an active participant. Secondary involvement refers to less direct forms of involvement such as involvement via the consumption or production of sport (See Figure 2). It is likely that physically active foreign students use the university athletic facilities most often when they participate in sport. They may also be involved in various sports outside the university especially as spectators at an event or consuming sports via the mass media.

(2) The Independent Variables:

Involvement in physical activity is thought to be related to several variables within each of the antecedent, attitudinal, cultural and situational dimensions. The following catalogue of independent variables under the four dimensions is expected to account for most foreign students involvement or lack of involvement in physical activity:

1. Antecedent Dimension:
   a. Past experience with physical activity.
   b. Social status.
2. Cultural Dimension:
   a. The value of sport in their native land.
   b. Individualism vs. groupism.
   c. Attitudes toward female sport participation in their native land.
3. Attitudinal Dimension:
   a. Attitude toward physical activity and health.
   b. Perceived athletic ability.
   c. Attitude toward sport as a vehicle for social integration.

4. Situational Dimension:
    a. Significant others:
        1) Peer group influence (involvement and support).
        2) Canadian peer group influence.
        3) Instructors' and teachers' influence.
        4) Family influence (spouse or children).
    b. Work situation.
    c. Opportunity set.
    d. Sport team identification.

C. Propositions

Based on the assumptions and on the review of literature, the following propositions were formulated:

Proposition 1:

The greater the intensity and pleasure of previous involvement in sport, the greater the degree of present primary and secondary sport involvement.

Theoretical Rationale:

According to social learning theory the acquisition of any behavior can be understood by looking at the antecedent stimulus conditions or variables and then at the consequences (Bandura 1969). In addition, Atchley (1977) claims that behaviors, attitudes and values acquired at one stage in the life-cycle predispose an individual to similar patterns of social participation at later stages.

Therefore, if one wishes to understand present and future involvement in sport, one must examine past experience with physical activity.

Loy, McPherson and Kenyon (1978) indicated that an interest in sport participation is aroused early in life, often before the age of six or seven. This initial interest often affects the process of being involved later in life. Moreover, McPherson (1976C) stated that socialization into secondary sport involvement at one stage in the life cycle appears to be highly dependent on the degree of socialization that has occurred at earlier stages. Finally, Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) found that sport involvement as an adult was greatly influenced by participation in sport programs as a youth.

In addition to the behavioral dimension of involvement in sport, the affective dimension might also influence sport participation. That is, one's feeling of satisfaction or pleasure with his/her past involvement would likely influence present sport participation. As Harris (1973) claimed: "Since sports and physical activity are a kind of play, motivation to participate in them can be partially attributed to the joy of the experience" (p. 46).

Proposition 2:

The higher the social status, the greater the propensity for primary and secondary involvement in sport.

Theoretical Rationale:

Social status is related to the opportunity to engage in certain physical activities. Factors such as education level, income, and occupational prestige influence sport involvement in golf, tennis and yachting, for example. The higher the socioeconomic status the greater the propensity for social involvement (Spady 1970).

Several studies have indicated that a higher social status is positively associated with a greater amount of primary and secondary sport involvement. Curtis and Milton (1976) found that respondents who were sports participants and sports spectators ranked higher in social status than those who were less involved in sport. In addition, those Canadians who participated in sport were more likely to be better educated, to enjoy higher incomes and to be employed in professional/executive positions (Fitness Report, 1983). Therefore, it is predicted that the higher the social status, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport.

Proposition 3(a):

Among their hierarchy of values, the higher sport is ranked by members of a society, the greater the degree of sport involvement by members of that society.

Proposition 3(b):

Among their hierarchy of values, the higher female participation in sport is ranked by members of the society, the greater the degree of female participation in sport.

Theoretical Rationale:

The process of becoming involved in sport varies cross-culturally, partly due to factors operating at the macro level such as the prevailing ideology, the type of political system, the degree of government stability, the state of the economy, and unique societal values and norms concerning the role of play and sport. At the macro level of a given society there is a dominant ideology that prescribes the major social values and norms. If this dominant ideology considers sport participation to be important, then human and economic resources will be allocated to enhance opportunities for athletic involvement (Loy et al., 1978; McPherson and Brown, 1988).

Kenyon and McPherson (1973) posited that national differences existed in the nature both of sport roles (kind, milieu, and complexity) and of relevant social system elements (value, norms, sanctions and situational opportunities). Therefore, an involvement in physical activity might be accepted as a valuable or desirable form of life style in some societies, but not in others. By way of example, Snyder and Spreitzer (1983) illustrated how a negative outlook toward sport in the Massachusetts Bay Colony influenced sport participation: "Because the values for the colony revolved around service to God, sport and physical exercise were practiced in moderation" (p. 49). Thus it is suggested here that the degree to which foreign students are socialized into sport roles in Canada is dependent to some extent on the importance assigned to sport involvement in their homeland.

In addition, cultural prescriptions associated with gender vary from group to group, and from time to time. In in late 1800s in Western society, there emerged consistent attitudes and ideals regarding the woman's role in the family and other social institutions, including sport; passiveness, obedience to the husband, and attractiveness were necessary to maintain the image of womanhood. Sports participation was contrary to this feminine ideal. Although this outlook has changed over the past decade in North America, several studies indicate that there is some continuation of the Victorian ideal that defines sport as an inappropriate activity for females (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983).

Guttmann's (1978) model provides a means of distinguishing the main characteristics of different modern cultures. One facet of this model is the equality principle, whereby it is argued that the extent to which this principle exists in a culture will influence the degree of female sports participation. Following Guttmann's reasoning, it can be predicted that the higher the level of acceptance of female sport participation in a given society, the greater the likelihood of women being involved in sport.

Proposition 4(a):

The greater the individual orientation, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport with Canadians.

Proposition 4(b):

The greater the group orientation, the greater the likelihood of foreign students participating in sport with individuals from their own society or ethnic group.

Theoretical Rationale:

The literature review indicated that individualism vs. groupism could be an important predictor of involvement in sport. The fundamental attributes of the group orientation are interdependence, intimacy in interpersonal relations, cooperation, and a more other-oriented versus a self-oriented attitude. On the other hand, an individual orientation depicts the individual as a distinct entity, with separable beliefs, talents and experiences. Competition and winning are important values in this orientation.

It is assumed here that a student socialized on the notion of groupism is more likely to interact with his or her own ethnic group and to take part in sports that are popular in that individual's homeland. Shibutani (1955) supports this line of thinking when he states:

> "Perspectives shared in the group are internalized through social participation. Variations in outlook thus arise through differential contact and association. Members of ethnic groups from their own distinctive cultures because their identification inclines them to interact intimately with each other and to maintain reserve before outsiders" (p. 564).

Conversley, a student socialized into an individual orientation is less likely to be bound to his own ethnic group. This individual is more likely to fraternize with members of the host society. According to Homans (1950), the more frequently persons interact, the more alike their activities and their sentiments tend to become. Consequently, it is predicted that the greater the individual orientation, the greater the propensity for involvement in Canadian sport with Canadians.

Proposition 5:

The more positive the attitude toward physical activity and health, the greater the propensity for involvement in physical activity.

Theoretical Rationale:

Smith et al. (1980) claim that human behavior can be understood by utilizing a set of predictors and process variables. They identified six factors which they say explains individual social participation. One of these variables is "attitudinal dispositions," which when applied to this study indicates that participation in sport will be highly associated with positive attitudes toward sport.

An interest in health and fitness among North American adults has increased considerably over the past decade (Eitzen and Sage, 1982). It seems apparent that an interest in health and fitness can influence a person's involvement in physical activity. This dimension was used by Kenyon (1968), in his ATPA inventory, as one of the dimensions characterizing a person's motivation to be involved in physical activity.

Several studies have indicated that a person's involvement in sport is greater when their attitude toward sport is positive, and when the person is concerned with improving their health and fitness (Kenyon, 1968; Eitzen and Sage, 1982). For example, in their study on adolescent girls, Snyder and Spreitzer (1976) found that the greater the positive attitude toward sport, the greater the participation in sport.

Proposition 6:

The greater a person's perceived athletic ability, the greater their propensity for involvement in physical activity.

Theoretical Rationale:

From a symbolic interaction standpoint, socializees constantly create new meanings and develop their own understandings and definitions of a situation, through their interaction with other people. Thus, children start evaluating their athletic abilities in early childhood. They continue to refine their perceptions of themselves through their interaction with significant others. These self perceptions of athletic ability ultimately influence their involvement in physical activity. For example, if children perceive themselves as poor runners and their school places a great importance on this ability, these children are likely to turn to other activities that provide them with more positive feedback.

Several empirical studies have found that perceived athletic ability influences sport involvement. For example, in Kenyon's (1970) study of major league baseball players and of Olympic athletes in Mexico City, the athletes' perceived athletic ability was a primary determinant of their sport involvement. Other studies (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1973; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1978; Spreitzer and Snyder, 1976; Coakley, 1987) provide a causal linkage of variables that are associated with adult involvement in sport. Identified as one important factor was a person's perceived athletic ability as a youth and as an adult.

__Proposition 7__:

If sport is perceived by a person as being an agent of social integration, the greater their desire to be socially integrated, the greater their involvement in Canadian sport with Canadians.

__Theoretical Rationale__:

Based on Smith's (1980) model, it appears that attitudinal disposition is one of the important variables for explaining individual social participation. Thus, in order to understand and predict an individual's behavior, it is important to assess their attitude toward the particular behavior. For example, an immigrant who has a positive attitude toward social integration might try to establish a network of social ties in the receiving community (Leaman and Carrington, 1985). One approach would be to participate in different institutions, sport being one of them. It follows, then, that the greater the desire to be socially integrated, the greater the involvement in Canadian sport with Canadians.

It should be noted that there are two prerequisites for this proposition: (1) The immigrant must have plans to settle in the receiving country, and (2) the immigrant must perceive sport as an agent of social integration which can assist him in being acculturated into Canadian society. Several empirical studies have viewed sport as an agent of ethnic integration (Young 1969; Tobin 1967; Donal and Griffey 1985; Day 1981). However, as Redmond (1978) stated, Canadian immigrants in fact have two choices: (1) to use sport as an agent of ethnic solidarity, or (2) to use sport as an agent in the assimilation process. An immigrant who has a positive attitude toward social integration might use sport as a vehicle for integration, and as a vehicle to speed the process of assimilation. This person is likely to take part in Canadian sports with Canadians. On the other hand, immigrants who resist assimilation and want to maintain their culture might use sport as an agent of ethnic solidarity. Thus, they will take part in their own country's traditional sports with members of their ethnic group.

Proposition 8(a):

The greater the encouragement from a home-country peer group, the greater the propensity for involvement in physical activity.

Proposition 8(b):

The greater the encouragement from a Canadian peer group, the greater the propensity for involvement in physical activity.

Proposition 8(c):

The greater the encouragement from a peer group from other countries, the greater the propensity for involvement in physical activity.

Theoretical Rationale:

The role of significant others has been studied extensively in socialization research. It has been found that following early childhood socialization experiences, the peer group is the next significant social system that influences the child. During childhood, peer groups are found in the immediate neighborhood; during the adolescent years, peer groups are located within the high school, and during adulthood, influential peer groups are normally comprised of peers at the place of employment or study. According to social learning theory, the process of socialization occurs through interaction with significant others. Among the variety of significant others in the socialization process of adults, the primary role of the peer group has been emphasized (Clausen, 1972).

Although an initial interest in sport is often stimulated in the home, peer groups have the potential to reinforce or inhibit subsequent developments. Loy, McPherson and Kenyon (1978) have noted that the lack of a sport-oriented peer group often leads individuals to reduce their involvement in sport. Similarly, entrance into a new peer group at work or at university can suddenly revive an earlier interest or stimulate a new interest in primary or secondary sport involvement.

The influence of significant others on an individual's sport involvement is well documented in the literature (McPherson, 1980). Additionally, Kenyon and Knoop (1978) found that sport involvement by adult males was best explained by peer influence and by past sport involvement. Thus it is expected that the peer group will be influential in socializing individuals into a physical activity role.

Proposition 8(d):

The greater the encouragement from sport instructors or other teachers in the university, the greater the propensity for involvement in physical activity.

Theoretical Rationale:

In addition to the influence of the peer group, teacher-student interaction may also facilitate or inhibit socialization into sport roles. Sport instructors or other teachers can be identified as significant others who influence involvement in physical activity. For example, Kenyon (1968) found that teachers and coaches appeared to be more influential than peers in stimulating an interest in track and field. Further, Yamaguchi (1987) emphasized that leaders of employee recreation programs had an important role in promoting participation in sport programs. Other influential figures, such as professors, might activate an earlier interest or create a new interest in primary or secondary involvement among their students. This scenario is more apt to occur if casual conversations focus on sports-related topics. Therefore, it has been assumed that foreign students are more likely to be involved in physical activity if they get encouragement from university personnel--either professors in their faculty, or recreational staff.

Proposition 8(e):

The greater the support of family members (spouse and children), the greater the propensity to be involved in sport.

Theoretical Rationale:

Most studies of socialization into sport roles indicate that the nuclear family plays an influential role, especially for females (Theberge 1977). A positive evaluation of sport by parents or siblings is likely to stimulate an interest in sport among the children. In adulthood, however, the role of the spouse and the offspring becomes crucial. Since most physical activity programs are leisure time activities, an involvement in the programs is often related to family concerns. For foreign students who have a family (spouse and/or children), reference groups include not only peer groups and instructors, but also family. If foreign students receive positive feedback from spouses or children for participating in physical activity programs, they will be more likely to get involved and stay involved in sport.

Empirical studies indicate that the most influential determinants of a woman's involvement in sport are her activity level when younger, and, if she is married the interest and involvement of her family (Hall, 1976). In a similar vein, Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) found that a spouse's involvement in sport was linked to their mate's involvement in sport.

Proposition 9:

The greater the discretionary time available, the greater the propensity for involvement in physical activity.

Theoretical Rationale:

Traditionally, sociologists have been interested in how work roles affect a person's leisure time behavior (Parker, 1971; Kelly, 1972; Deem 1982; Gregory 1982). Since this study is concerned with university students, their academic activities could be expected to exert a substantial influence on their degree of sport involvement. For this reason, it is important to know what faculty they are in, how many courses they are taking, and how much time they study everyday.

There are three aspects of discretionary time: Free time, work time, and travel time (Yamaguchi, 1987). Most of the physical activity programs provided by the university are scheduled on weekdays. Thus, students who are pressed for time on weekdays may be less likely to be involved in physical activity programs in the university setting. Similarly, those who take many courses, have a lot of assignments, or must study for many hours, probably will have less time available for sports activities. Students who have jobs as well as studying are even less likely to be involved in sport.

In addition, travel time from one's home to the university may be a factor in determining a person's degree of sport involvement. If one has less travel time, they have more time available for physical activity. Therefore, it is predicted that the greater the discretionary time available, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport.

Proposition 10:

The greater the opportunity set in the community, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport.

Theoretical rationale:

The opportunity set available in the community is critical for the learning of physical activity roles, since sport activities generally require some specialized facility or equipment. According to social learning theory, learning is an interactional process between environmental sources of influence and the socializee (Bandura, 1977). Thus, if there is limited access to sport facilities and parks, it is difficult to be involved in sport activities in the community. If sports or workout possibilities exist in the community, the person at least has the potential to be more physically active.

Proposition 11:

The greater the identification with sports teams in the community, the greater the degree of consumer sport socialization.

Theoretical Rationale:

Another vehicle that may assist in socializing immigrants could be the presence of a successful sport team in the community. In Edmonton, Alberta, the "Oilers" hockey team is a very successful team that attracts considerable mass media attention. There are people in the community who perceive the "Oilers" hockey players as their "idols." Identification theory focuses on the strong affective relationship between a model and the identifier through which socialization occurs. It views the socializee as dependent, having a strong emotional attachment to the model, wanting to be like him or her, and emulating that individual's behavior (Bandura 1969; Dager et al., 1976).

Based on identification theory, it is assumed here that the greater the success of the team, the greater the identification with the team. Furthermore, the greater the identification with the team, the greater the degree of secondary sport involvement.

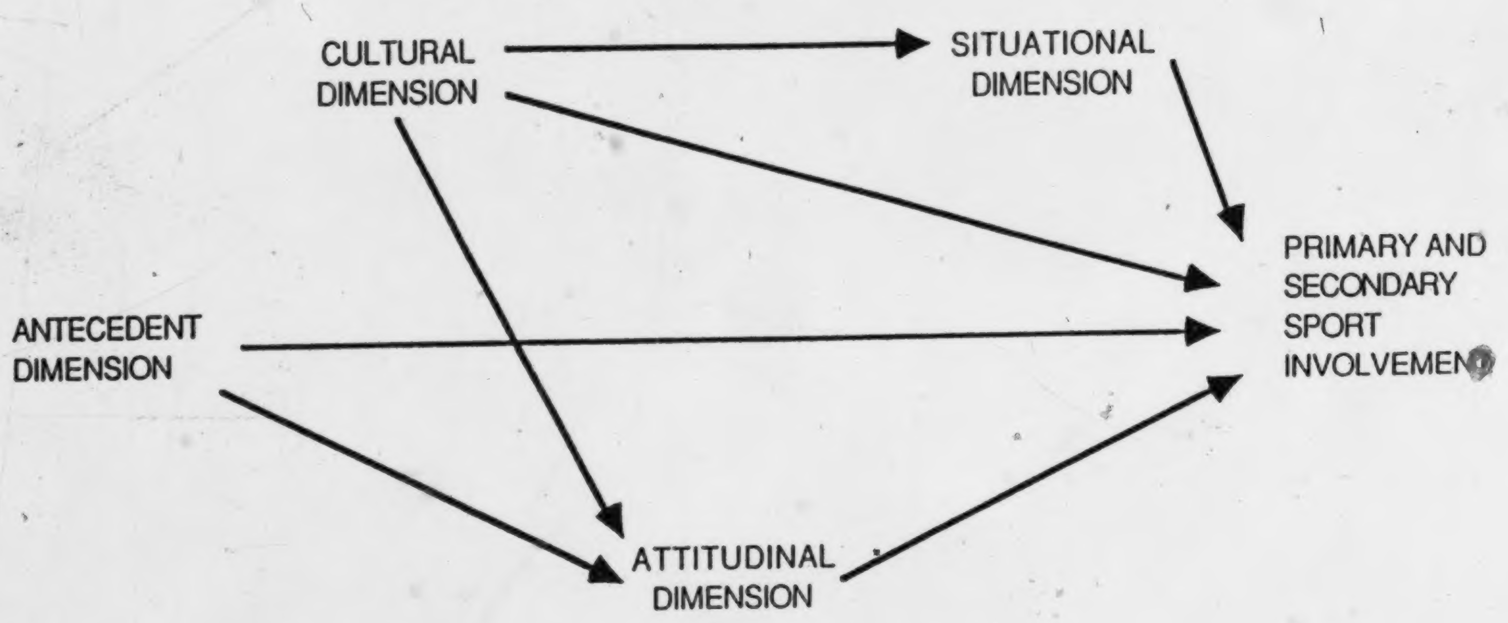
Empirical studies indicate that outstanding professional athletes do serve as significant others. For example, McPherson (1973) found that most college hockey players had an "idol" who was usually an outstanding professional hockey player.

D. Hypothesized Model

Based on a review of the literature and on the propositions discussed in the previous section, a general hypothesized model is proposed. The antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions have been identified as the independent variables. Each one of these dimensions influences the dependent variables, which are primary and secondary sport roles involvement. However, it was also assumed that the antecedent and cultural dimensions (independent variables) influence attitudinal and situational dimensions (intervening variables). Figure 4 illustrates the hypothesized model which attempts to explain the process of foreign students socialization into sport.

The relationships between the independent and the dependent variables were discussed in the previous section. However, except for propositions 4(a) and 4(b), the relationship between the independent and the intervening variables need further discussion. First, it is assumed that the attitudinal and situational dimensions are intervening variables. Thus, past physical activity involvement (antecedent dimension) should influence the attitudinal dimension. Secondly, the cultural dimension should influence the attitudinal and situational dimension.

FIGURE 4: HYPOTHESIZED MODEL FOR THE PROCESS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT


CULTURAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SPORT INVOLVEMENT
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION

- Past Experience with Physical Activity
- Social Status

- The Value of Sport in Society
- Female Sport Participation
- Groupism vs. Individualism

- Attitude toward Sport & Health
- Perceived Athletic Ability
- Attitude toward Sport as Social Integrator

- Significant Others (Peers, Family, etc.)
- Sport Team Identification
- Opportunity Set
- Work Situation

Survey research by Spreitzer and Snyder (1976a) indicated the relationship between past experience with sport and perceived athletic ability. They presented a causal relationship that flowed from early childhood to adulthood. One of the intervening variables in their model is the respondent's perceived ability in sports. Other studies support this predicted causal relationship, as they indicate a person's attitude toward sport is positively related to their past involvement in sport (Kenyon 1968).

It is also predicted that the cultural dimension will influence a person's attitude toward sport. Several studies have shown a positive relationship between the values of a society and an individual's attitude toward sport. For example, Snyder and Spreitzer 1983 noted that the Puritans, who believed in values that revolved around service to God, attempted to erase all sport and play from their lives.

Further, cultural values might influence the situational dimension as well. It is assumed here that sport team identification is related to the cultural values of a society. For example, Smith (1973) pointed out that in a society where sport is highly popular, children see older models attending sporting events, watching games on television, and reading about sports in magazines and newspapers. With so much attention devoted to sport, the child soon learns that sport is important. The result of this process is a realization of the significance of sport and adulation of the sport heroes. The adulation of sport heroes is the result of identifying with sports figures or with sports teams. Finally, cultural values such as "groupism" and "individualism" may affect attitudes toward social integration. Students who grew up on the notion of "groupism" may socialize more often with their own ethnic peer-groups than with Canadian peer-groups. Consequently, they would be less open to embracing Canadian Society than those who grew up on the notion of "individualism".

In sum, this model suggests that foreign university students sport involvement at the university is related to numerous variables within the antecedent, attitudinal, cultural and situational dimensions. Further, although not all the variables in the hypothesized model are necessarily related, the antecedent and cultural dimensions do affect the attitudinal and situational dimensions.

CHAPTER IV

Procedures

This chapter outlines the research methodology followed in the study. These detailed procedures are presented in the following five sections: (A) the operationalization of the dependent and independent variables, (B) the population to be studied, (C) data collection methods, (D) the Respondents and (E) data analysis.

(A) Operationalization of Variables

Dependent Variables:

In this study, physical activity or sport activity includes both primary and secondary levels of involvement. Thus the following two dependent variables are used in the study: (1) primary involvement, and (2) secondary involvement.

(1) Primary Involvement in Physical Activity

Theoretical Definition -- participation in organized games as a player or as a competitor, or participation in non-work physical activity, as a performer or an active participant.

Operational Definition -- frequency of participation in any sport or physical activity, where frequency is expressed on a six-point scale as follows: (1) 3 times a week or more,

(2) about 1-2 times a week, (3) once every 2-3 weeks, (4) about 6-12 times per year, (5) about 3-5 times per year, and (6) rarely or not at all.

(2) Secondary Involvement in Physical Activity

Theoretical Definition -- participation in any sport or physical activity as a consumer. In this study consumption includes four classifications: (1) attending a sporting event, in which the person sees the players or the game in person, (2) viewing a sporting event on television, (3) reading about a sporting event in newspapers or magazines, and (4) talking about sport.

Operational Definition -- (I) frequency of "attending" "viewing," "reading" and "talking" about sport events, where frequency is expressed on a six-point scale as follows: (1) 3 times a week or more, (2) about 1-2 times a week, (3) once every 2-3 weeks, (4) about 6-12 times per year, (5) about 3-5 times per year, and (6) rarely or not at all. (II) the composite measure of the 3 scales pertaining to: attending, viewing and reading.

Independent Variables:

(1) Past Experience with Physical Activity

Theoretical Definition -- past physical activity experience refers to the degree of past involvement, unrelated to compulsory school activities, as well as the degree to which their sport involvement experiences gave them pleasure.

Operational Definition -- (I) the degree of involvement in sport during youth (6-20 years), where degree is expressed on a six-point scale: (1) almost every day, (2) about 3 times a week, (3) about once a week, (4) about once a month, (5) about once a year, and (6) not at all. (II) the degree of perceived pleasure experienced in physical activity during youth as measured on the following five-point scale: (1) to a very great extent, (2) to a great extent, (3) to some extent, (4) to a limited extent, and (5) not at all. (III) A composite of the above two scales, which was deemed to measure the behavioral and affective dimensions of youth sport involvement.

(2) Social Status

Theoretical Definition -- the position of a person or group of people in the hierarchy of positions that are unequal with regard to power, property, social evaluation and for psychic gratification (Tumin, 1967). In this study, social status was determined by parents' level of education, father's occupational prestige, and family income.

Operational Definition -- a composite measure of education, occupational prestige and family income.

(I) Education:

Parents' education level, where level of education was measured by the number of years completed in the formal education system.

(II) Occupational Prestige:

The respondent's personal assessment of their parent's occupational prestige based on a four-point scale: (1) very prestigious, (2) prestigious, (3) moderately prestigious, and (4) not prestigious.

(III) Family Income:

The respondent's self report of their family income, compared with other families in their country as determined by the following five-point scale: (1) very high, (2) moderately high, (3) average, (4) low, and (5) very low.

(3) The Cultural Significance of Sport

__Theoretical Definition__ -- the cultural significance of sport refers to the person's judgment as to the importance of sport participation in their society as compared with other popular cultural activities.

__Operational Definition__ -- the respondent's personal assessment of the importance of the following activities, based on a five-point scale: (1) not popular at all, (2) not so popular, (3) neutral, (4) somewhat popular, and (5) very popular.

- attending concerts
- attending place of worship (mosque, temple, church)
- watching sport events on television
- watching other television programs
- participating in sport
- attending a sport event

- attending live theatre
- going to movies

(4) The Cultural Significance of Women's Sport Participation

Theoretical Definition -- the perceived cultural significance of women's participation in sport in the respondent's home country.

Operational Definition -- the respondent's judgment of the acceptability of females' sport participation in their home country as indicated on a four-point scale: (1) strongly acceptable, (2) acceptable, (3) not widely acceptable, and (4) not acceptable at all.

(5) Groupism VS. Individualism:

Theoretical Definition -- "Groupism" orientation is a shared belief that cooperation, interdependence, and intimacy in interpersonal relations are important values in a society. "Individualism" orientation is a belief that the individual is a distinct entity with separable beliefs and talents. In addition, competition and winning are important values in the individualism orientation.

Operational Definition -- a composite measure of respondents' answers to questions such as the following, which were measured on a four-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". (Cf. Survey Research Center at York University, 1969; Robinson and Shaver, 1973).

(1) It is important in my country for an individual to be closely identified with at least one group.

(2) In my country an individual should for the most part "go for it alone" assuring himself of privacy, having much time to himself, attempting to resist being influenced by others.

(3) In my country some of life's greatest satisfaction are found in being cooperative with others.

(4) In my country, some of life's greatest satisfaction are found when one competes with others and wins.

(5) I prefer to associate with the people from my own country than with other people.

(6) Attitude Toward Physical Activity

__Theoretical Definition__ -- attitude toward physical activity refers to the person's opinion of the value of physical activity, that is, are they for or against physical activity (Cf. Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980:6).

__Operational Definition__ -- a composite measure of one's feeling toward participation in physical activity, as evaluated by a seven-point semantic differential scale.

1) important - unimportant
2) desirable - undesirable
3) beneficial - harmful
4) rewarding - punishing
5) fun - not fun

(7) Attitude Toward Health

Theoretical Definition -- attitude toward health refers to the degree to which respondents adhere to certain basic health practices (cf., Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980:6).

Operational Definition -- a composite measure of the degree of interest in the following items:

1) your personal health
2) your nutrition
3) your body weight
4) exercise activities for yourself

The above were measured using a five-point scale: (1) not important at all, (2) not so important, (3) neutral, (4) somewhat important, and (5) extremely important.

(8) Perceived Athletic Ability

Theoretical Definition -- perceived athletic ability is the respondent's personal opinion of how healthy they are and their ability in athletics, relative to others.

Operational Definition -- degree of personal assessment of one's health and ability in athletics at the present time, compared with all others of one's age and sex, on a four-point scale: (1) below average, (2) average, (3) good, and (4) excellent.

(9) Attitude Toward Sport as a Social Integrator

Theoretical Definition -- attitude toward sport refers to the person's belief in sport as a social integrator, which may assist in their integration into Canadian society.

Operational Definition --

(I) a composite measure of the person's agreement with the following statements, using a five-point scale: (1) strongly agree, (2) somewhat agree, (3) neutral, (4) somewhat disagree, and (5) strongly disagree.

1) Sport helps me integrate into Canadian society.
2) I prefer to get involved in activities where I can meet Canadian people
3) I can better enter Canadian society by participating in sport.

(II) Questions pertaining to the students' plans after the completion of their current degree:

1) Return to their home countries.
2) Study for another degree at the U of A.
3) Study for another degree at another Canadian university.
4) Apply for permanent resident status and work in Canada.
5) Other (specify)

(10) Significant Others (Peer, Instructor, Family)

Theoretical Definition -- significant others refers to the degree individuals have been influenced to be involved in sport by peers, instructors, and family members.

Operational Definition -- (I) the degree of encouragement to participate in physical activity by instructors, Canadian peers, non-Canadian peers, spouse and children, using a five-point scale: (1) Often encouraged, (2) sometimes encouraged, (3) neither encouraged nor discouraged, (4) sometimes discouraged, and (5) often discouraged. (II) The degree of sport participation of Canadian peers, non-Canadian peers, spouses and children and instructors as evaluated by a six-point scale: (1) 3 times a week or more, (2) about 1-2 times a week, (3) once every 2-3 weeks, (4) about 6-12 times per year, (5) about 3-5 times per year, and (6) rarely or not at all.

(11) Opportunity set in the Community

Theoretical Definition -- The set of sport opportunities includes "accessibility to sport facilities" and "membership in a sport or fitness club outside the university."

Operational Definition -- (I) Accessibility to sport facilities as measured by the distance from one's home to the nearest sport facility: (1) up to 5 minutes, (2) 6-15 minutes, (3) 16-30 minutes, (4) 31-60 minutes, (5) more than 1 hour. (II) The response to the question whether one is a member of a sport organization outside the university.

(12) Team Sport Identification

Theoretical Definition -- team sport identification refers to a person's emotional attachment to a particular sports team. The person admires the team and wants to be like the people on this team.

Operational Definition -- a composite measure of the persons' responses to the following questions:

1) Do you have a favorite sport team? If yes, which team?

2) During the last season you watched your favorite sport team:

   a) 1-5 times.
   b) 6-10 times.
   c) More than 10 times.
   d) Not at all.

3) You wear your team's shirt and/or hat: (a) often; (b) sometimes; or (c) not at all.

4) You collect souvenirs of your favorite team and athletes: (a) often, (b) sometimes, or (c) not at all.

5) The more successful the sport team the more important the team becomes to you.

Question 5 is measured on a five-point scale: (a) strongly agree, (b) somewhat agree, (c) neutral, (d) somewhat disagree, or (e) strongly disagree.

(13) Work Situation

Theoretical Definition -- the work situation refers to the academic involvement of the students and the time available for other activities.

Operational Definition -- (1) The Faculty enrolled in, the degree sought, and the number of hours the respondent spends studying, (2) The amount of free time available on weekdays and weekends, (3) The total amount of work time a week, and (4) Travel time from one's home to the university.

(B) The Population

The population for this study is comprised of all foreign students at the University of Alberta. It was decided that all foreign students would be included in the survey, since the extraction of a sample of foreign students might eliminate smaller sub-groups with distinctly different characteristics.

Although it would have been ideal to interview all foreign students at the university, such a project was beyond the scope of a Ph.D thesis. Instead, the main data collection procedure was a self-administered questionnaire, which was mailed to 1556 U of A foreign students. According to the most recent records, there are 769 undergraduates and 787 graduate students from 85 different countries attending the University of Alberta (see Table 2). Since 1969, Hong Kong has consistently been the leading country in sending undergraduates. In 1988-89, 501 Hong Kong students attended

Table 2
Full-Time Foreign Students at the University of Alberta
(1983-1989)

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1989
Total	1655	1655	1591	1552	1560	1556
Undergraduates	994	959	862	817	810	769
Graduate	661	696	729	736	750	787

Foreign Students as percentage of total student body
(1983-1987)

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Total	7.24	7.02	6.68	6.39	6.18
Undergraduate	4.87	4.58	4.09	3.79	3.61
Graduate	26.95	26.48	26.59	26.52	26.78

10 Leading Countries - Graduate Students
(5 years ago & now)

1983		1987	
India	92	China (PRC)	466
United States	64	India	70
Hong Kong	52	Hong Kong	62
United Kingdom	50	United States	41
China (PRC)	30	Ghana	35
Ghana	22	United Kingdom	28
Malaysia	22	South Korea	22
South Korea	21	Brazil	19
Sri Lanka	17	Nigeria	15
Bangladesh	14	Malaysia	14
Others	277	Others	260

10 Leading Countries - Undergraduate Students
(5 years ago & now)

1983		1987	
Hong Kong	526	Hong Kong	466
Malaysia	151	Malaysia	64
Singapore	45	Singapore	51
United Kingdom	42	United Kingdom	22
United States	18	Trinidad & Tobago	21
Kenya	14	United States	15
Nigeria	14	Kenya	13
Trinidad & Tobago	14	China (PRC)*	10
Portugal	13	Portugal	9
China (PRC)*	11	Tanzania	8
Others	146	Others	131

* China (PRC) undergraduate figure probably reflects China as birthplace rather than citizenship.
(Taken from Report of the Survey of International Students, U of A, 1986-87)

the University of Alberta. The People's Republic of China was the second largest sender with 241 students, followed by India with 84 students, Malaysia with 83 students, England with 57 students and the United States with 54 students (Report of International Center News 1988-89).

Even though the total U of A foreign student population was surveyed, it still may not be a nationally representative sample. The results should be interpreted with caution, as it is possible that foreign students at the University of Alberta are different from other foreign students in Canada.

(C) Data Collection:

Records for the 1556 full-time and part-time students who are not Canadian citizens or permanent residents were obtained from the office of International Student Affairs. Information for each student included names and addresses (on campus where possible) for mailing purposes, and background characteristics such as country of citizenship, sex, faculty enrolled in, and degree sought.

Based on this information, a pilot study was conducted. A preliminary version of the questionnaire was sent to a sample of twenty-five students selected at random from the population of international students. This pilot survey served to check and improve procedures, to identify areas of concern which were not included in the survey, and to pinpoint items on the questionnaire which needed clarification.

Once the questionnaire had been revised on the basis of the results of the pilot study, face-to-face interviews were arranged with ten international students to elicit their reactions to the survey. An attempt was made to select students who represented a cross-section of the population. At least one student was included from each continent. In addition, among these students fifty percent were females, some were married and they were enrolled in several different faculties. The researcher met the students individually, at a time and place most convenient for the student. The students were asked to react to the items in the questionnaire, the questionnaire as a whole, and the survey itself. Items that were ambiguous, unclear, or incomplete were identified and later modified.

In an effort to maximize the response rate, an appeal to the potential respondent was made through a cover letter signed both by the researcher and by the International Student Center's director. The director endorsed the study and encouraged respondents to reply. The letter informed the reader of the intent of the study and the need for the desired information. Also, it briefly outlined the directions for completing and returning the questionnaire, and guaranteed the respondent complete anonymity (See appendices A and B).

Prior to mailing the questionnaires, two articles were published in the International Newsletters informing the students about the upcoming study and requesting their participation. In addition, the proposed questionnaire and methodology for the survey were submitted to the General Policy Committee on Human Research, for an ethical review.

A questionnaire, covering letter, and addressed campus-mail return envelope was sent to each student on December 29, 1988. To ensure anonymity, the questionnaires and envelopes had no identifying marks or numbers on them.

Budget restrictions prevented a follow-up by either mail or telephone. However, two more articles were published in the International Newsletter and several notices were posted at the International Student Centre. The articles and the notices encouraged the students who hadn't yet returned their questionnaires to do so. Moreover, letters were sent to 30 International Student organizations on campus asking their members to participate in the study (See appendix C).

Response Rate -- Of the 1556 questionnaires sent, 430 were usable, while 37 were returned as undeliverable by Canada Post or Campus Mail. This resulted in a response distribution as follows:

	Number Returned	Percentage of Number Sent
Usable Returns	430	27.6%
Returned Undelivered	37	2.4%
TOTAL	467	30.0%

A follow-up letter likely would have increased the response rate by 10 to 20 percent. Other surveys, which have sampled international students and have sent a follow-up letter, had response rates of 40.3% and 53.3% (Davidson and Bryan, 1980). Other reasons for the relatively low response rate in this study might be due to the rather lengthy questionnaire, and to the fact that sport involvement may not have been overly appealing topic for these foreign students. Since the survey was concerned exclusively with physical activity and was 13 pages long, it might be that many students were not motivated enough to answer the questions.

The length of the questionnaire prompted some comments. Several students indicated that:

- "The questionnaire is too long to maintain interest."
- "It is difficult to give well-thought out answers after the first couple of pages."
- "It is really boring!"
- "Fifty-seven questions are pretty much. You will probably have certain bias in the last few pages."

However, as will be shown in the next section, those who did respond were compared on several demographic variables with the total population. Comparison indicated that the sample seemed reasonably representative of the population.

Table 3
Frequency Distributions
of Country of Citizenship (Respondents Vs. Population)

COUNTRY	RESPONDENTS (N=426) %	POPULATION (N=1556) %
Argentina	0.5	0.4
Australia	1.7	1.7
Austria	0.2	0.1
Bangladesh	0.7	0.6
Belgium	0.2	0.1
Brazil	2.1	0.8
Brunei	0.7	0.8
China	14.7	15.3
Costa Rica	0.2	0.1
Denmark	0.2	0.3
Egypt	1.2	1.2
Ireland	1.0	1.5
England	4.7	11.7
Ethiopia	0.2	0.6
France	0.7	0.8
Ghana	3.1	3.0
Greece	0.5	0.8
Guatemala	0.2	0.3
Guyana	0.2	0.9
Hong Kong	23.0	41.0
India	7.0	8.0
Indonesia	0.7	0.6
Iran	0.2	2.3
Iraq	0.2	0.1
Israel	0.7	0.5
Italy	0.5	0.8
Ivory Coast	0.2	0.06
Japan	0.7	1.4
Kenya	1.7	1.9
Macao	0.5	0.06
Malaysia	4.8	6.7
Mauritius	0.2	0.5
Mexico	1.4	0.6
Morocco	0.2	0.2
Nepal	1.0	0.4
Netherlands	1.0	1.9
New Zealand	1.0	0.8
Nigeria	0.5	1.2
Pakistan	0.5	0.8
Papua New Guinea	0.7	0.1
Philippines	1.0	1.5
Poland	0.5	2.6
Romania	0.2	0.5
Sierra Leone	0.5	0.3
Singapore	3.9	3.7

Table 3 (Continued)

COUNTRY	RESPONDENTS %	POPULATION %
South Africa	0.2	0.7
South Korea	1.7	2.5
Spain	0.5	0.1
Sri Lanka	0.2	1.1
Sudan	0.2	0.1
Sweden	0.2	0.3
Switzerland	0.2	0.2
Tanzania	0.7	1.7
Thailand	0.7	0.9
Trinidad I Tobago	0.2	1.9
Turkey	1.0	0.5
United States	7.2	16.6
Venezuela	0.2	0.3
West Germany	1.2	3.7
Zambia	0.2	0.3
Zimbabwe	0.5	0.5

Table 4
Percentage Frequency Distribution of Sex of Respondents and Population of International Students

	MALE %	FEMALE %	
Respondents	65.3	34.4	427
Population	67.4	32.6	1556

Table 5
Percentage Frequency Distribution of Degree Program of Respondents and Population of International Students

DEGREE	RESPONDENTS N=427	POPULATION N=1556
Undergraduate	32.5%	49.4%
Graduate	66.8%	50.6%

Table 6
The Sample Demographics

Age

Range: 18-53
Mean: 27.6
Median: 27

Length of Time in Canada

Range: 3 months - 9.5 years
Mean: 3.2 years
Median: 2.3 years

Marital Status

Single: 259 (61.5%)
Married: 141 (33.5%)
Other: 19 (19.9%

Place of Living

On Campus: 169 (40.1%)
Off Campus: 251 (59.6%)

Religion

Christianity: 187 (44.4%)
Buddhism: 18 (4.3%)
Hinduism: 26 (6.2%)
Judaism: 3 (0.7%)
Islam: 17 (4.0%)
Other: 4 (1.0%)
None: 156 (37.1%)

(D) The Respondents

Four hundred and thirty foreign students representing 61 countries participated in this study. Tables 3 through 5 compare the respondents and the entire University of Alberta foreign student population on three variables: country of citizenship, sex, and degree program. Table 6 features a breakdown of the other major demographic variables contained in the sample.

Students from 85 countries or regions are represented at the University of Alberta, whereas students from 61 countries responded to the survey. The country with the largest number of respondents was Hong Kong (23%) followed by the People's Republic of China (14.7%), India (7.0%), and the United States (5.8%). Generally the percentage distribution of country of citizenship is similar for the respondents and the population. The exceptions include students from England, Hong Kong, Iran, Poland and United States who responded at a lower rate than would be expected from their numbers in the population.

The ratio of males to females was virtually identical for the respondent group and the entire population (Table 4). Moreover, two-thirds of the respondents were single (61.5%), while approximately one-third (33.5%) of the respondents were married. The majority of the respondents (74%) were less than 30 years old, the mean age being 27.6 (Table 6). These proportions were similar to the results found in a survey of International students at the University of Alberta (1987).

Most of the students had been in Canada less than four years (75%); eighteen percent were in their first year in this country. Also, more than half of the respondents lived off campus (59.6%). The most frequently mentioned (44.4%) religious preference was Christianity, while 37% of the students claimed no religion preference.

Graduate students responded to a greater extent (66.8%) than would be expected from their numbers in the population (50.6%). Thus, a bias towards graduate students exists in the data. Other biases associated with this study may include students who have a greater understanding of English, or students who have a particular interest in sport. It should be noted, however, that 51.6% of the respondents indicated that they were active in sport, compared with 48.4 of the students who stated that they were not involved in sport. Thus, it was not just students who were active in sport who participated in the study, but also those who were not involved in sport.

(E) Data Analysis:

The data in this study were reduced and analyzed to provide:

1. Descriptive statistics for dependent and independent variables.
2. Bivariate regression between each independent and dependent variable.
3. Path analysis, which offers an explanation of the process of foreign student socialization into sport.

This procedure appeared to have the potential to contribute to an increased understanding of the process of foreign students' socialization into sport. The descriptive statistics produced information for the dependent and independent variables. A number of studies indicated that cross-national and sex differences exist in the process of socialization into sport. Thus, the first stage in the analysis involved comparing frequency distributions for the major variables.

The bivariate regression was used to determine whether relationships existed between each independent and dependent variable. This analysis also indicated the extent to which these variables were related. Finally, to evaluate the hypothesized model and to take all the factors influencing the dependent variables into consideration, a path analysis was conducted.

(1) Descriptive Statistics

The first step in the analysis was to produce information for the dependent and independent variables. Frequency distribution of responses, a T-test and a oneway (Scheffe) analysis were conducted for major variables. For example, the T-test was used as a test of statistical significance to determine differences between Graduates and Undergraduates and males and females in their sport involvement.

(2) Bivariate Regression

The second part of the analysis involved two stages: (1) computing composite indicators and (2) analyzing the nature and strength of the relationships between independent and dependent variables using bivariate regression, cross tabulation and oneway (Scheffe) analysis. In this stage, each of the propositions was analyzed.

Composite Indicators:

Composite indicators were used for many of the variables. According to Kim and Kohout (1975:341) there are two suggested procedures to handle this situation:

(1) To create a new variable which is a composite scale of the set of highly intercorrelated variables and to use the new scale variable in the regression equation in place of its components, or

(2) To use only one of the variables in the highly correlated set to represent the common underlying dimension.

The first procedure was used here since it did not involve a loss of information as is the case in the second procedure. In addition, reliability measures and factor analysis determined which variables would construct an additive scale.

(3) Path Analyses

Although a bivariate analysis provides the strength of the relationships between the independent and dependent variables, it does not take into consideration other factors influencing the dependent variable. Also, there could be spurious relationships between variables, due to the existence of a third variable. Thus, it was important to conduct a multivariate analysis which takes into account more than two variables at one time and reduces the problem of spurious relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

In this stage, path analysis was used to examine the hypothesized model. Path analysis is a statistical technique employing a set of path coefficients in a system of regression equations to interpret the implications of a set of causal assumptions. A crucial prerequisite for the use of path analysis is a set of previously postulated causal relations. Thus, a path coefficient does not prove causality. Rather, it indicates the magnitude of the direct or indirect effect of a particular variable on the dependent variable.

Chapter V

Results

This chapter is divided into three major sections. In the first section, descriptive statistics for dependent and several independent variables are presented and discussed. This section also contains descriptive statistics which provide additional information regarding "typical" international students at the University of Alberta.

The next section examines relationships between the dependent variables and each independent variable, based on the bivariate regression statistical procedure used to analyze each of the propositions. The final section presents results of a path analysis employed to test the hypothesized model; this section also reports results of a separate analysis for sex, marital status and degree program.

Part 1

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

A. Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables:

Descriptive statistics for the degree of primary and secondary sport involvement (dependent variables) are presented separately for country, sex, and degree program.

Country:

Tables 7 and 8 illustrate the extent of primary and secondary sport involvement of students from seven different countries: China, England, Hong Kong, India, Malaysia, Singapore and United States. These countries were chosen for analysis because of their relatively large number of respondents. Table 9 presents the results of a oneway (Scheffe) analysis. This test determines whether there are significant differences between countries regarding their students' primary and secondary sport involvement. It is noteworthy that a composite measure (a single sum of the variables) was computed for secondary sport involvement.

Four items were assumed to measure secondary sport involvement: (1) attending sport events, (2) viewing sport events, (3) reading about sport, and (4) talking about sport (see question 28). The reliability coefficient (Alpha) of these four items was 0.81. Several of the items are measured on an ordinal scale, such as "often," "sometimes," "rarely," yet, like any likert-type measures they are treated as interval items.

Table 7
Frequency Distribution of Primary Involvement in Sport by Country

	N	**3 Times a week**	**About 1-2 times a week**	**Once Every 3 weeks**	**About 6-12 times per year**	**Rarely or* not at all**
China	59	20.3%	39.0%	13.6%	5.1%	23.0%
England	20	30.0%	35.0%	20.0%	10.0%	5.0%
Hong Kong	95	3.2%	33.7%	27.4%	16.8%	18.9%
India	30	33.3%	20.0%	23.3%	6.7%	16.7%
Malaysia	20	20.0%	55.0%	5.0%	15.0%	5.0%
Singapore	18	16.7%	38.9%	16.7%	11.1%	16.7%
U.S.A.	31	41.9%	38.7%	12.9%		6.5%

* Includes categories "about 3-5 times per year" and "Rarely or not at all.

Table 8
Frequency Distribution of Secondary Involvement in Sport by Country

	N	Often[1]	Sometimes[2]	Rarely[3]
China	36	33.3%	38.9%	27.8%
England	18	33.3%	50.1%	16.7%
Hong Kong	89	21.3%	28.1%	50.6%
India	21	14.3%	61.9%	23.8%
Malaysia	18	33.3%	50.1%	16.8%
Singapore	14	21.4%	57.1%	21.4%
U.S.A.	30	60.0%	23.4%	16.6%

1. Includes students who scored between 4 to 10.

2. Includes students who scored between 11 to 17.

3. Includes students who scored between 18 to 24.

Table 9
Oneway Analysis for Primary and Secondary Involvement in Sport by Country

	Primary Involvement			Secondary Involvement		
	Mean**	SD	N	Mean**	SD	N
1. China	2.86	1.7	59	13.8	5.4	36
2. England	2.32	1.3	19	13.2	5.3	18
3. Hong Kong	3.26*	1.4	95	16.4*	5.8	89
4. India	2.70	1.6	29	15.4	5.3	21
5. Malaysia	2.35	1.3	20	12.2	4.2	18
6. Singapore	2.90	1.7	18	15.0	4.9	14
7. U.S.A.	1.91*	1.3	31	12.0*	5.4	30

*Group 3's means (Hong Kong) is significantly different from group 7's means (U.S.A.) at $p \leq .05$

**Means for primary and secondary involvement indicate that the greater the score the smaller the participation in sport.

As seen in Tables 7 and 8, students from the U.S.A. were more active in sport than students from other countries. Nearly half of the American students (41.9%) said they were engaged in sport three times a week or more, while another 38.7% of the American students reported being involved in sport about one to two times a week. Also, the Americans consumed sport more frequently than the other students. Sixty percent of the American students disclosed that they engage in sport about three times a week.

On the other hand, students from Hong Kong were the least active in sport. Only 3.2% claimed to be active in sport three times a week or more, while 18.9% indicated that they were rarely, if ever, involved in sport. In fact, the data provided in Table 9 indicate significant cross-national differences ($P \leq .05$) in sport involvement between students from the United States and Hong Kong for both primary and secondary involvement in sport. There were no significant differences in the degree of primary and secondary sport involvement among the other countries.

Sex:

The data provided in Tables 10 and 11 indicate the degree of primary and secondary sport involvement of male and female foreign students. Table 12 presents the results of a T-test which measures the differences between the means of these two groups.

Table 10
Frequency Distribution for Primary Involvement in Sport by Sex

	N	3 Times a Week or More	About 1-2 Times a Week	Once Every 2-3 Weeks	About 6-12 Per Year	*Rarely or Not At All
Males	278	21.2%	38.5%	16.5%	6.1%	17.6%
Females	144	13.9%	31.9%	24.3%	10.4%	19.4%

*Includes categories "about 3-5 Times Per Year" and "Rarely or Not At All"

Table 11
Frequency Distribution for Secondary Involvement in Sport by Sex

	N	Often[1]	Sometimes[2]	Rarely[3]
Males	213	38.5%	35.9%	21.5%
Females	125	13.6%	32.8%	53.6%

1. Includes students who scored between 4-10.
2. Includes students who scored between 11-17.
3. Includes students who scored between 18-24.

Table 12
Means, SD and T-Values for
Males and Females

	Primary Involvement			Secondary Involvement		
	Mean	**SD**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**N**
Males	2.77	1.62	274	13.1	4.99	209
Females	3.02	1.56	144	17.2	5.56	125
T-Value	*1.58			*6.97		

*P<.01

As shown in Tables 10, 11 and 12, there were significant differences in the degree of primary and secondary sport involvement (P<.01) between male and female respondents. Approximately 21% of the males were involved in sport three times a week or more compared with 14% of the females. Furthermore, there were significant sex differences in the degree of secondary sport involvement. Approximately 40% of the males were "often" involved in secondary sport compared with only 14% of the females in the sample. In fact, 54% of the female respondents "rarely" had a secondary involvement with sport during the previous 12 months.

Degree Program:

The data in Table 12 illustrate the extent of primary and secondary sport involvement of graduate and undergraduate students. Table 13 presents the results of a T-test between these two groups.

Table 13
Frequency Distribution of Primary Involvement in Sport by Degree Program

	N	3 Times a Week or More	About 1-2 Times a Week	Once Every 2-3 Weeks	About 6-12 Per Year	*Rarely or Not At All
Undergraduate	138	10.9%	33.3%	22.5%	14.5%	18.8%
Graduate	102	19.6%	34.3%	25.5%	3.9%	16.7%

*Includes categories "About 3-5 Times Per Year" and "Rarely or Not At All"

Table 14
Frequency Distribution of Secondary Involvement in Sport by Degree

	N	Often[1]	Sometimes[2]	Rarely[3]
Undergraduate	123	25.2%	30.9%	43.9%
Graduate	84	28.6%	46.4%	25.1%

1. Includes students who scored between 4-10.
2. Includes students who scored between 11-17.
3. Includes students who scored between 18-24.

Table 15
Means, SD and T-Values for Undergraduate and Graduate Students

	Primary Involvement			Secondary Involvement		
	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
Undergraduates	3.10	1.50	137	15.5	5.78	122
Graduates	2.74	1.66	273	14.1	5.44	206
T-Value	2.17*			2.28*		

*P<.05

The data presented in Tables 13, 14 and 15 indicate that there were significant differences ($P \leq .05$) in the extent of primary and secondary sport involvement between graduate and undergraduate respondents. Graduate students were more active in their primary and secondary sports involvement. These findings, however, should be interpreted with caution since the undergraduate population is comprised mostly of students from Hong Kong. In this study, 82 of the 138 undergraduate students are from Hong Kong. As the reader may recall, these students were the least active in sport.

B. Descriptive Statistics for Several Independent Variables:

Descriptive statistics for five independent variables are presented separately by sex. T-test statistics indicate whether there are significant differences between male and female respondents.

Past Involvement:

"Past" is a composite measure of three composite measures. First, 3 composite measures were created as follows:

1. "Involve" = items 37A, 37B and 37C. (Alpha=.71)
2. "Attend" = items 38A, 38B and 38C. (Alpha=.87)
3. "Pleasure" = items 39A, 39B and 39C. (Alpha=.87)

Second, a final composite measure, "Past" was created from the above items:

"Past" = "Involve", "Attend" and "Pleasure", (Alpha=.70).

Table 16 illustrates the degree of past involvement in sport for males and females. Table 17 provides the result of a T-Test between male and female respondents.

Table 16
Frequency Distribution for Past Involvement In Sport by Sex

	N	Often[1]	Sometimes[2]	Rarely[3]
Males	255	56.5%	40.8%	2.8%
Females	130	26.2%	63.7%	10.1%

1. Includes students who scored between 9 to 22.
2. Includes students who scored between 23-36.
3. Includes students who scored between 37-51.

Table 17
Means, SD and T-Values of Past Involvement In Sport for Males and Females

	N	Mean**	SD	T-Value
Males	255	21.87	7.44	*6.07
Females	130	26.87	8.06	

*P<.01

**The mean indicates that the greater the score, the smaller the sport involvement.

The data presented in Tables 16 and 17 indicate that males were more involved in primary and secondary sport during their youth than were females. Moreover, males claimed to derive more satisfaction and pleasure from their sport involvement than did females. Approximately 57% of the male respondents reported they were "often" involved in sport during their youth compared with 26% of the females. Furthermore, only 3% of the males were "rarely" involved in sport compared with 10% of the females. A T-Test indicated that these differences were significant at P<0.1.

Attitude Towards Health:

The data provided in Table 18 represent the importance of personal health, nutrition and body weight (items 15A, 15B and 15C) for males and females. Table 19 provides the results of a T-Test between male and female respondents.

Table 18
Frequency Distribution for Attitude Toward Health by Sex

		N	Not Important At All 1	2	Neutral 3	4	Extremely Important 5
Health	Male	279	0.4%	0.4%	9.0%	34.4%	55.9%
	Female	145			9.0%	41.4%	49.7%
Nutrition	Male	279	1.1%	1.1%	21.1%	44.4%	31.9%
	Female	145			20.0%	43.4%	36.6%
Body Weight	Male	279	2.9%	3.9%	36.6%	39.4%	16.5%
	Female	145	1.4%	1.4%	28.3%	41.4%	27.6%

Table 19
Means, SD and T-Values for Attitude Toward Health for Males and Females

		N	Means	SD	T-Value
Health	Male	275	4.45	0.70	0.57
	Female	145	4.40	0.65	
Nutrition	Male	275	4.04	0.85	1.54
	Female	145	4.20	0.73	
Body Weight	Male	275	3.60	0.95	*3.37
	Female	145	3.90	0.85	

*P<.01

The data presented in Tables 18 and 19 indicates that females were more concerned with proper nutrition and body weight than were male respondents. The T-Test revealed a significant difference (P<.01) on the extent of concern with their body weight between males and females.

Attitude Toward Physical Activity:

A composite measure was computed for items 31A to 31E. These items were assumed to measure one's attitude toward physical activity. The reliability coefficient (Alpha) of these items was .92. Tables 20 and 21 present the attitude of respondents toward physical activity.

Table 20
Percentage Frequency Distribution of Sport Attitudes of Males and Females

	N	Extremely Important[1]	Neutral[2]	Not Important At All[3]
Males	252	83.3%	14.4%	2.3%
Females	136	75.7%	20.5%	3.6%

1. Includes students who scored between 5-15.
2. Includes students who scored between 16-25.
3. Includes students who scored between 26.35.

Table 21
Means, SD and T-Values of Attitude
Toward Sport for Males and Females

	N	Means	SD	T-Value
Males	252	10.44	5.63	*2.22
Females	136	11.82	6.24	

*P<.05

As seen in Tables 20 and 21, there were significant differences (P<.05) in attitude toward physical activity between males and females. Approximately 84% of the males reported that sport was extremely important, desirable, beneficial, valuable and fun for them, compared with 76% of the females. In addition, only a small number of male and female respondents indicated that sport was not important at all.

Significant Others:

Tables 22 and 23 provide information about the encouragement respondents may have received from significant others that led to their sport involvement, the significant others being: (1) close friend from respondent's country, (2) close Canadian friend, (3) close friend from other country, (4) children or spouse (if any) and (5) teacher at the university.

Table 22
Frequency Distribution for Significant Others Encouragement Which Led to Sport Involvement

			Often Discouraged		Neutral		Often Encouraged
		N	1	2	3	4	5
Country Friend	Male	199	0.5%	2.0%	30.7%	38.7%	28.1%
	Female	104	1.9%	1.9%	26.0%	35.6%	34.6%
Canadian Friend	Male	199		1.0%	36.2%	34.2%	28.6%
	Female	98	1.0%		33.7%	32.7%	32.7%
Other Country Friend	Male	167		1.2%	45.5%	35.3%	18.0%
	Female	88	2.3%		44.3%	33.0%	20.5%
Children/Spouse	Male	86	1.2%	7.0%	20.9%	22.1%	48.8%
	Female	29			13.8%	34.5%	51.7%
Teacher	Male	122		0.8%	73.8%	21.3%	4.1%
	Female	69	2.9%	2.9%	69.6%	18.8%	5.8%

Table 23
Means, SD and T-Values of Significant
Others Encouragement Which Led to Sport Involvement

		Means	SD	T-Values
Country Friend	Male	3.91	0.84	0.67
	Female	3.99	0.93	
Canadian Friend	Male	3.90	0.82	0.53
	Female	3.95	0.87	
Other Country Friend	Male	3.70	0.77	0.77
	Female	3.69	0.87	
Children/Spouse	Male	4.10	1.04	1.32
	Female	4.37	0.72	
Teacher	Male	3.28	0.55	0.74
	Female	3.21	0.72	

As seen in Table 22 and 23 there were no significant differences between males and females in terms of the amount of encouragement they received from significant others. Most of the respondents (Males and Females) indicated that a friend from their country encouraged them sometimes (category 4), while their spouse or children often encouraged them. Moreover, a Canadian friend, a close friend from other country and a teacher at the University neither discouraged nor encouraged respondents' sport involvement. Only a small number of people had significant others who discouraged them from participating in sport.

Orientations Toward Sport:

One of the values frequently attributed to sport is that it promotes sportsmanship and fair play. The popular literature, however, is replete with examples suggesting that the dominant theme is victory at all cost. In this study the researcher tried to determine the orientation of foreign students toward sport. Tables 24 and 25 compare the attitudes of males and females toward sport. Table 26 presents the results of a oneway analysis of variance, which measures the differences between students from different countries.

Table 24
Frequency Distribution for Orientation Toward Sport By Sex

		N	Not Important At All 1	2	Neutral 3	4	Extremely Important 5
Play Well	Male	277	1.8%	4.7%	17.3%	39.7%	36.5%
	Female	144	2.1%	2.8%	24.3%	41.7%	29.2%
Win	Male	277	16.2%	10.5%	39.4%	26.0%	7.9%
	Female	142	19.7%	12.7%	47.2%	17.6%	2.8%
Play Fair	Male	274	1.8%	1.5%	12.4%	33.6%	50.7%
	Female	142	1.4%	2.8%	20.4%	33.1%	42.3%
Fun	Male	279	0.7%		6.1%	28.0%	65.2%
	Female	144			4.9%	32.6%	62.5%
Self Improvement	Male	277	1.1%	3.6%	20.2%	44.8%	30.3%
	Female	143	0.7%	1.4%	25.9%	37.8%	34.3%
Participate With Others	Male	279	1.8%	3.2%	24.4%	41.2%	29.4%
	Female	144	1.4%	3.5%	27.1%	47.9%	20.1%

Table 25
Means, SD and T-Values of Orientation Toward Sport for Males and Females

		Means	SD	T-Values
Play Well	Male	4.04	0.94	1.18
	Female	3.93	0.91	
Win	Male	2.99	1.15	*2.39
	Female	2.71	1.06	
Play Fair	Male	4.30	0.88	*1.94
	Female	4.11	0.92	
Fun	Male	4.57	0.67	0.10
	Female	4.57	0.59	
Self-Improvement	Male	3.99	0.87	0.44
	Female	4.03	0.85	
Participate With Others	Male	3.93	0.90	1.24
	Female	3.81	0.84	

*$P \leq .05$

Table 26
Means and SD for Orientation Toward Sport by Country of Origin

		China 1	England 2	H.K. 3	India 4	Malaysia 5	Singapore 6	U.S.A. 7
	N	56	20	95	30	20	18	31
Play Well	Mean	3.6*	4.3	3.9	4.1	3.9	4.2	4.3*
	SD	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.9
Win	Mean	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.5	3.0	3.0
	SD	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.1
Play Fair	Mean	3.5**	4.4**	4.2**	4.3**	4.3**	4.1	4.7**
	SD	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.4
Fun	Mean	4.3***	4.6	4.4	4.5	4.8	4.6	4.9***
	SD	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
Self-Improvement	Mean	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.0
	SD	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9
Participate With Others	Mean	3.7	3.8	3.6	4.1	4.1	3.8	3.7
	SD	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.0

* Group 1’s mean (China) is significantly different from group 7’s mean (U.S.A.) at $P<.05$

** Group 1’s mean (China) is significantly different from group 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 at $P<.05$

*** Group 1’s mean (China) is significantly different from group 7’s mean (U.S.A.)

The data in Table 24 show that a majority of respondents (males and females) reported that "To Play Well," "To Play for Self-Improvement" and "To Participate

With Others" were important values for them (category 4). Moreover, most males and females indicated that "To Have Fun" was extremely important (category 5). The findings replicate previous research in showing that non-athletes tend to rank "fun" as the most important criterion in sport (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1979). These findings are also similar to those of Snyder and Spreitzer (1979) in showing that the males were slightly more intrinsically oriented, "To Have Fun," than the females (65.2% of the males compared with 62.5% of the females). At the same time, data provided in Table 25 revealed that male respondents expressed significantly greater interest (P<.05) in "Winning" and "Playing Fairly" than did female respondents.

As shown in Table 26, there were significant differences between students from China and the United States in their orientation toward sport. The American students expressed a stronger interest in "Playing Well," "Playing Fairly" and "Having Fun" than did the students from China. Surprisingly, China was significantly different from most of the other countries with respect to the orientation of "Playing Fairly."

C. Additional Information:

Additional information concerning foreign students' sport participation was gathered in this study. This information was not used to test any of the research propositions but to provide further data on "typical" international students at the University of Alberta.

A. Favorite Sports of Respondents (Question 25):

The students were asked to list three of their favorite sports or exercise activities. The most popular sport for male and females was swimming (see Table 27). Approximately 28% of the males and 40% of the females listed swimming as one of their three favorite sports. This could be due to the fact that two pools are available for the students on campus. In addition, most students do not need to learn new skills or to buy expensive equipment. The second most popular sport for male respondents was jogging (26.6%), followed in order by soccer, badminton, squash, skating and fitness activities. Females preferred badminton as their second most popular sport, followed by squash, jogging, fitness activities and skating.

Table 27
Percentage Frequency Distribution of Favorite Sports For Males and Females

Name of Sport	Male (N=282)	Female (N=145)
Swimming	28.4%	40.0%
Jogging	26.6%	17.9%
Soccer	20.6%	4.1%
Badminton	17.0%	22.0%
Squash	14.0%	18.6%
Skating	13.5%	13.8%
Fitness	5.7%	17.9%

B. A Favorite Sport Team (Question 33):

Approximately 43% of the male students indicated that they had a favorite sport team. On the other hand, only 20% of the female students noted that they had a favorite sport team. As anticipated, the most popular sport team for both male and female students was the "Edmonton Oilers." Eighty-nine male students (74%) and twenty-one females (73%) indicated that the "Oilers" was their favorite sport team. Most of the other teams were mentioned infrequently, the only exceptions being the "Los Angeles Lakers" and the "Minnesota Vikings," which were listed three times each by the male respondents.

C. Admired Athlete (Question 36):

Approximately 37% of the males respondenting to this question (104 students) and 28% of the females (41 students) named athletes they admired. As seen in Table 28 the most popular athlete for both males and females was Wayne Gretzky. Carl Lewis was the second most popular athlete, although he was mentioned only by male respondents. Other athletes mentioned more than once were Mark Messier, Jarri Kurri, Boris Becker, Diego Maradona, John McEnroe, Grant Fuhr, Pele and Katrina Witt. Interestingly, only three female athletes were mentioned once each by female respondents: Steffi Graff, Martina Navratilova and Katrina Witt. All of the other admired athletes were males. Also, several Oilers' players were listed more than once by male and female respondents.

Table 28
Frequency Distribution of Admired Athletes of Males and Females

Name of Athlete	Male (N=104)	Female (N=41)
Gretzky	36 (35%)	11 (27%)
Lewis	7 (6.7%)	--------
Messier	5 (4.8%)	2 (4.9%)
Kurri	2 (1.9%)	3 (7.3%)
Maradona	3 (2.9%)	---------
McEnroe	3 (2.9%)	---------
Fuhr	2 (1.9%)	1 (2.4%)
Witt	2 (1.9%)	1 (2.4%)
Becker	---------	2 (4.9%)
Pele	2 (1.9%)	---------

D. University's Facilities (Question 57):

Approximately 40% of the students indicated that they had used the university's sport facilities. When the students who did not use the facilities were asked why this was the case, the most frequent answer was that they did not have the time. However, approximately 32% of the respondents answered that they were not familiar with the facilities. Also, 6.4% of the students indicated that it was too costly to use the University's facilities. The latter response was somewhat puzzling since students pay only 22 dollars for using the facilities during the academic year.

This question prompted a few other comments. Several students stated that:

- "The University's facilities are too expensive to use with the family."
- "These facilities are too crowded."
- "The facilities are not always available."

E. Participation in Orientation Tour and Skate-Give-Away Program (Question 16, 24):

Only 13% of the respondents said they attended the orientation tours of University's physical education facilities. Two explanations might account for this low participation rate. First, only one quarter of foreign students usually attend the three-day orientation program offered by International Student Affairs. Second, until recently the University's sport facilities were not included in this tour. The above factors may explain the findings in question 57. Students did not participate in the orientation tour of the University's sport facilities, and thus reported that they were not familiar with them and that the facilities were too expensive. It is noteworthy that several students stated that they missed the orientations due to arriving in Canada late. Others said that they started their studies in the winter semester and that there was no orientation tour for them.

With respect to participation in the skate-give away program, only 6% of the respondents attended this event. Some typical comments were as described below:

- "I did not hear about it."
- "I wish they would do it more often."
- "It was a lot of fun."
- "I wanted to participate, but there were no skates in my size."
- "It should be advertised much better."

F. Participation in Student Clubs
(Question 19, 21, 22, and 23):

Only 14 male students reported being a member of an International Student Center athletic team. Approximately 22% of the respondents reported being involved in student clubs. Almost one-third of the respondents who were members in student clubs were engaged in sport as part of the club's activities.

G. Consequences of Sport Participation (Questions 47 and 50E):

The process of sport socialization includes three dimensions: (1) becoming initially involved in sport, (2) One's present participation in sport, and (3) the consequences of a person's sport involvement. This study was limited to an investigation of the first two stages. The study explored the social and cultural factors that influence the process of becoming involved in sport. However, two questions posed in this study provided information on the third dimension, which pertained to the consequences of sport involvement. Students were asked in an open-ended question to describe what they considered to be the benefits and the negative aspects of their sport participation. In addition, they were asked to indicate to what extent their involvement in sport had affected their academic achievement. Tables 29 and 30 present an analysis of the responses to Question 47. Table 31 provides the frequency distribution of Question 50E.

Table 29
Percentage of Sample Reporting Specific Benefits Derived from Primary Involvement in Sport

Benefits Derived From Sport*	Male (N=282)	Female (N=145)
1. Good physical health, fitness, exercise	66.0%	64.0%
2. Fun, enjoyment	34.8%	22.0%
3. Tension release, relaxation	18.8%	27.6%
4. Meet new friends, new culture	17.7%	12.4%
5. Socialization, participation	11.7%	15.2%
6. Self improvement, new skills	9.6%	11.7%
7. Mental health, feeling of well-being	8.9%	10.3%
8. Diversion from studies/work	7.0%	5.5%
9. Weight control	2.8%	8.3%
10. Sleep better	1.8%	2.8%
11. Productive use of spare time	1.4%	2.1%

*Students listed at most 5 benefits they derived from sport. Each benefit was coded once.

Table 30
Percentage Frequency Distribution of Negative Results From Involvement in Sports

Negative Results of Involvement in Sport*	Male (N=282)	Female (N=145)
Injuries	14.5%	7.6%
Time commitment needed	12.0%	13.1%
Take up study time	8.9%	4.1%
Tiredness	7.5%	10.3%
Increases expenses	2.8%	2.8%
Muscle Fatigue	2.5%	1.4%
Feel bad if not successful	1.4%	4.1%
Increased appetite	1.2%	-----
Exposure to unsportsmanlike conduct	1.2%	-----
Competitiveness annoying	1.2%	1.4%

*Students listed at most 3 negative results. Each negative result was coded once.

Table 31
Frequency Distribution on Agreement with the Statement: "My sport involvement has slowed my academic achievements"

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
Male (N=272)	33.5%	25.4%	28.3%	8.1%	4.8%
Female (N=143)	31.5%	32.2%	28.7%	6.3%	1.4%

Two hundred and fourteen male students (76%) indicated at least one benefit they derived from involvement in sport. Almost half of the students responding to this question listed two or three other benefits. A similar pattern was seen with respect to the replies of female students. Approximately 75% of the females responded to this question, with almost half of them listing two or three benefits from their sport involvement.

Most male and female respondents indicated that their sport involvement contributed to their health and fitness. Other frequently mentioned benefits were fun, tension release, meeting new friends and helping in the socialization process. There were two major differences between males and females regarding the purported benefit of their sport involvement; a higher number of male students (34.8%) stated that fun and enjoyment were important benefits, compared with 22% of the females, and more females indicated that tension release and weight control were important benefits for them.

Only 43% of the male respondents and 34.5% of the females listed at least one negative result from their sport involvement. Very few males and females provided more than one negative comment. The most common statements were: sport involvement can cause injuries, the time commitment needed, it takes up study time, and it makes you tired. In addition, 41% of the females reported that they felt bad when they [illegible] not succeed in sport.

Finally, more than half of the respondents did not agree with the statement that sport had slowed their academic achievements (Table 31). Only 4.8% of the males, and 1.4% of the females strongly agreed with this statement.

In sum, students tended to perceive sport as functional in their lives. Most of them indicated at least one benefit they derived from their sport involvement. However, these results should be viewed with caution. It could be that the students who participated in this study were more interested in sport than those who did not. Thus, a bias toward those who derived more benefits from sport may exist in this study.

Part 2

The Relationship Between Dependent and Independent Variables

This section examines the relationships between the dependent variables and each independent variable. Propositions were analyzed in most cases using a bivariate regression and in several instances using a oneway analysis, and composite measures were computed. Reliability coefficients and a factor analysis determined the items to be included in the composite measure.

Involvement in physical activity is related to a variety of variables within four major dimensions. Hence, this section is divided into four parts, namely, antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions. Each of these sections provides:

1. The descriptions and reliability of measurement scales and
2. The results of a Bivariate analysis for each variable.

A. The Antecedent Dimension:

The first step in the analysis was to produce composite measures for respondents' past involvement in sport, socio-economic status, and secondary involvement in sport. Table 32 presents the descriptions and reliability of measurement scales. In addition, the question of variable validity is a complex one as one can never be completely confident that the respondents understood the questions the way one hoped they would. In this research two methods were used to increase question validity. First, many of the questions had been used in previous research and generally were accepted as valid. Second, as part of the pilot test, interviews were conducted with ten foreign students. Questions found to be confusing or ambiguous were modified.

Table 32
Descriptions and Reliability of Measurement Scales for the Antecedent Dimension

Scale	**Description**	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**Items**
INVOLVE	Primary Involvement During Youth	.72	V37A Elementary School V37B Secondary School V37C Early Adulthood
ATTEND	Secondary Involvement During Youth	.86	V38A Elementary School V38B Secondary School V38C Early Adulthood
PLEASURE	Satisfaction or Pleasure During Youth	.84	V39A* Elementary School V39B* Secondary School V39C* Early Adulthood
PAST	A Composite Measure of "Involve," "Attend" and "Pleasure."	.70	V37A to V39C
SES	Socio-Economic-Status	.72**	V53* Family Income V54* Father's Occupation Prestige
PARENTS	Parents Education	.90**	V52A Father Education V52B Mother Education
CONSUME	Secondary Involvement In Sport	.81	V28A Attend Sport V28B View Sport V28C Read about Sport V28D Talk about Sport

* Recorded Items

** When a composite measure comprises only 2 variables the reliability measure is Spearman-Brown's.

As shown in Table 32, past involvement in sport is a composite measure of three other aggregate measures: "Involve," "Attend" and "Pleasure." The new variable "Past" is a composite measure of (1) past behavioral involvement (primary and secondary), and (2) past affective involvement (pleasure or satisfaction).

Social Economic Status (SES) is often measured by one or all of the following variables: (1) income, (2) education and (3) occupation. Often, these variables are highly correlated and a composite measure is computed. In this study, however, there was not a strong relationship between parent's education and either income or occupation. Consequently, SES is measured here with two composite measures: (1) family income and father's occupation and (2) parents' education (father and mother).

It should be noted that parent's education was measured on an objective scale while income and occupation were measured on subjective scales (see questions 52 to 54). It might be that respondents tended to rank their father's occupation and income higher than it really was. In addition, it is possible that under certain circumstances, occupation, income and education do not belong in the same content domain. For example, in countries where unemployment is high (e.g., Spain, Ireland) education measures intellectual capability, while income and occupation indicate the state of the labour market. Therefore, university graduates may find themselves performing jobs for which they are overqualified and which do not pay well.

Finally, secondary involvement is a composite measure of Attend, View, Read and Talk about Sport. The reliability coefficient is .81.

Proposition 1:

The greater the intensity and pleasure of previous involvement in sport, the greater the degree of present primary and secondary sport involvement.

Table 33 presents the regression results pertaining to the impact of past involvement in sport on present primary and secondary sport involvement. Past involvement was related positively and significantly to primary and secondary involvement. This proposition was supported most strongly with secondary involvement (ß=.47). These findings are consistent with several studies that contend there is a continuity between past sporting experience and present sporting involvement (McPherson and Kenyon, 1978; McPherson 1976c; Spreitzer and Snyder, 1976 and Harris 1973). These results are counter to Yamaguchi's (1984) findings, who generally did not find a significant association between past experience and present involvement in physical activity.

Table 33
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of
Past Sport Involvement on Present Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Past	.16 (3.22)*	.47 (9.3)*
R^2	.03	.2
R^2 (Adjusted)	.02	.2
F	10.4*	86.5*

T-Values in parantheses.
P<.01 (I-Tailed Test)

Proposition 2:

The higher a respondent's social status, the greater their propensity for primary and secondary involvement in sport.

There was insufficient support for this proposition, as parents' education had little impact on their children's primary and secondary involvement in sport. Furthermore, no relationship was found between SES (income and occupation) and involvement in sport. By way of explanation, it is possible that the measures of SES used in this study are not sophisticated enough to accurately assess a foreign student's status in their home country, or it may simply be the case that for foreign students, SES is not an important predictor of sport involvement.

It should be noted that a low negative association (ß-.12) was found between SES and secondary sport Involvement. That is, the data indicate that the lower the SES (Family income and Father's occupation), the greater the propensity for secondary sport involvement. If these findings are valid, they indicate unique patterns of foreign students sport involvement in contrast with North American studies (Curtis and Milton 1976, and Fitness Report, 1983). The findings are consistent, however, with Yamaguchi's (1984) findings.

Table 34
Standarized Regression Results of the Effects of Income, Occupation and Education on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables	
	Primary	Secondary
Education	.001 (.029)	.07 (1.15)
SES (Income & Occupation)	-.06 (-1.00)	-.12 (-2.17)
R^2	.003	.02
R^2 (Adjusted)	-.003	.01
F	.50	2.84

T-Values in Parentheses.

B. The Cultural Dimension:

At the first stage of analysis, a composite measure was computed for Question 49. This question measured the popularity of various activities in each country. It was found that the reliability coefficient for attending sport events (49E) and participating in sport activities (49F) was .67. It should be noted that several students indicated that television was not available in their countries (item 49C). Indeed, when item 49C was included in the analysis the reliability coefficient alpha dropped to .54. For the purpose of this study, however, the composite measure "Popularity" comprises two items, (1) attending sport events and (2) participating in sport activities (49E and 49F).

In the second stage, question 48 was factor analyzed. The results in Table 35 show that items 48A, 48C and 48D belong in the same content domain ("Groupism") while items 48B, 48F and 48G belong to another domain ("Individualism").

Table 35
Factor Analysis of "Groupism" and "Individualism"

	Factor 1 Groupism	Factor 2 Individualism
Item 48A	.476	.002
Item 48B	-.062	.767
Item 48C	.724	.265
Item 48D	.674	-.177
Item 48E	.336	.299
Item 48F	-.074	.507
Item 48G	.463	.516
Item 48H	-.087	.240

N-397
Factor loadings of ±.47 and above were used to define factors.

Factor score coefficients were used to create weighted sum composite measures. By so doing the level of reliability is increased; otherwise it was relatively low (under .60)

Proposition 3(a):

Among their hierarchy of values, the higher sport is ranked by members of a society, the greater the degree of sport involvement by members of that society.

As illustrated in Table 36, this proposition was supported for secondary sport involvement but not for primary involvement. Specifically, no relationship was found between the popularity of sport in a society and the degree of primary involvement (ß=.001). In contrast, the popularity of sport in a society was related positively and significantly to secondary involvement in sport (ß=.20)

Table 36
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Sport's Popularity on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables	
-	Primary	Secondary
Popular	.001 (-.005)	.20 (3.71)*
R^2	.000	.04
R^2 (Adjusted)	-.002	.04
F	.001	13.73*

T-Values in Parentheses
* P<.01 (I-Tailed Test)

Proposition 3(b):

Among their hierarchy of values, the higher female participation in sport is ranked by members of a society, the greater the degree of female sport participation.

The first step in the analysis was to test whether there were significant differences in the way males and females perceived female sport participation in their countries (question 55). The results of the T-Test in Table 37 indicated that there were no significant differences between males and females in the way they perceived female sport participation in their home country. Therefore, it was possible to assume that a selection of the female segment of the sample would not bias the results. In the second stage, a bivariate regression was conducted on the female segment of the sample.

As seen in Table 38, this proposition did not hold for the primary sport involvement dimension. There was no association between the acceptance of female sport participation in a country and females' primary involvement in sport. Further, a low non-significant association was found for secondary sport involvement ($\beta = .11$). Thus, these findings suggest that the acceptance of female sport participation in a country did not significantly influence female sport involvement among these foreign students. It might be, however, that the findings for propositions 3(a) and 3(b) were due to the fact that two different countries were involved in the analysis. The independent variables, (1) popularity of sport and (2) acceptance of female sport, were related to a person's home country, while the dependent variables (primary and secondary sport involvement) were measured in the new country, Canada.

Table 37
Means, SD and T-Values for Female Sport Participation

	N	Means	SD	T-Value
Males	277	1.78	0.6	-0.31
Females	145	1.80	0.6	

Table 38
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Female Sport Acceptance on Female Involvement in Sport

Variables	Dependent Variables	
	Primary	Secondary
Acceptance of Female Sport	-.001 (-.017)	.11 (1.2)
R^2	.000	.011
R^2 (Adjusted)	-.008	.003
F	.000	1.43

T-Values in Parantheses.

Proposition 4(a):

The greater the individual orientation, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport with Canadian friends.

Proposition 4(b):

The greater the group orientation the greater the likelihood of foreign students to participate in sport with those from their own society or ethnic group.

The results of the factor analysis indicated that three elements of questions 48 measured respondents' individual orientation, (48B, 48F and 48G) while the other three items measured their group orientation (48A, 48C and 48D). In order to discriminate between countries that emphasized individual orientation and countries that stressed a group orientation, a oneway analysis was conducted. The data provided in Table 39 revealed somewhat surprising findings.

No two countries were significantly different on groupism and individualism. There are two points to consider concerning these findings; first, it must be remembered that except for Hong Kong and China, the number of respondents from each country is relatively small; second, it is possible that foreign students in this sample are not representative of their countries. The fact that they left their homeland and moved to a new place indicates they are atypical individuals in their society. As such, even if they come from supposedly group-oriented countries, they may score high on individualism.

Table 39
Oneway Analysis of "Groupism" and "Individualism" By Country

Country	Groupism			Individualism		
	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
China	.066	.78	57	-.091	.90	56
England	.464	.84	20	-.406	.98	20
Hong Kong	.026	.64	93	-.306	.80	93
India	-.268	.68	25	.303	.82	28
Malaysia	.010	1.01	20	.038	.83	20
Singapore	.231	.87	18	.200	1.02	17
U.S.A.	.056	.88	31	.031	.76	30

Although no significant differences were found between countries on the level of "groupism" and "individualism," additional analyses were conducted for each country. Table 40 presents the results of a oneway analysis on three variables: (1) sport involvement with a Canadian friend; (2) sport involvement with a home country friend; and (3) sport involvement with a friend from another country.

Table 40
Oneway Analysis for Patterns of Sport Involvement By Country

Country	N	Canadian Friend		Home Country Friend		Other Country Friend	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
China	51	1.8*	.42	1.3	.46	1.7***	.44
England	19	1.2	.41	1.7**	.45	1.7	.47
Hong Kong	93	1.6	.48	1.1	.35	1.6	.49
India	26	1.5	.50	1.5	.50	1.5	.50
Malaysia	20	1.3	.47	1.4	.50	1.2	.44
Singapore	18	1.6	.51	1.2	.38	1.4	.51
U.S.A.	29	1.3	.45	1.9**	.30	1.6	.49

* China was significantly different from England, Malaysia and U.S.A. at $P<.05$.

** England and the U.S.A. were significantly different from China, Hong Kong and Singapore. In addition, U.S.A. was significantly different from India and Malaysia at $P<.05$.

*** China was significantly different from Malaysia at $P<.05$.

As illustrated in Table 40, there were significant cross-cultural differences for each of the three variables, namely, Canadian friend, home country friend and other country friend. First, respondents from China were significantly different from English, Malaysian and American respondents with regard to their sport involvement with a Canadian friend. Specifically, the Chinese were less likely to be involved in sport with Canadian friends than respondents from England, Malaysia and U.S.A. A similar trend could be seen for respondents from Hong Kong and Singapore.

Second, England and the U.S.A. were significantly different from most of the other countries. That is, respondents from these two countries were not involved in sport with friends from their home countries. Third, Chinese respondents were significantly different from the Malaysians. The Chinese tended not to be involved in sport with friends from other countries.

The above findings partially supported propositions 4(a) and 4(b). Although no significant differences were found between countries on the level of "Groupism" and "Individualism," there are articles that claim that in China a group orientation is emphasized while individualism is deemphasized (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983). In the U.S.A., on the other hand, the emphasis is said to be more on independence, competition and individual orientation. The results in this study indicate that indeed, the Chinese who ostensibly were socialized on the notion of groupism were more likely to interact with their own ethnic group, while the Americans who purportedly were socialized on the notion of individualism, did not interact as frequently with people from their own country. It should be noted however, that other factors such as mastery of the language and the degree of visibility of the ethnic group may have contributed to the above findings.

C. The Attitudinal Dimension:

Based on reliability coefficients, four composite measures were computed for the analysis of the attitudinal dimension. Table 41 summarizes the descriptions and provides reliability coefficients for each of the measurement scales.

Table 41
Descriptions and Reliability of Measurement Scales for the Attitudinal Dimension

Scale	Description	Cronbach's Alpha	Items
Sport Attitude	Attitude toward Sport	.92	V31A Sport is important V31B Sport is desirable V31C Sport if beneficial V31D Sport is valuable V31E Sport is fun
Health	Attitude toward Health	.70	V15A* importance of health V15B* importance of nutrition V15C* importance of body weight V15D* importance of exercise
Perability	Perceived Athletic Ability	.80	V13* Present state of health V14* Fitness level
Integration	Attitude toward Social Integration	.73	V50A* Sport helps me integrate V50B* I prefer activities where I can meet Canadians V50C* I can better enter Canadian society through sport

* Recorded Items.

Proposition 5:

The more positive the attitude toward physical activity and health, the greater the propensity for involvement in physical activity.

This proposition was supported most strongly for the attitude toward sport dimension. As shown in Table 42, positive and significant associations (P<.01) between a person's attitude toward sport and their primary and secondary sport involvement were found in this study (β=.47 and β=.15 respectively).

There were also significant relationships between respondent's attitudes toward health and their primary sport involvement (β=.33). However, as seen in Table 43, a low and insignificant association was found between their attitudes toward health and the degree of secondary sport involvement. It seems then, that the students who had positive attitudes toward health did not perceive secondary involvement as means for improving their health. These findings are generally consistent with several studies (e.g., Kenyon, 1968; Eitzen and Sage, 1982; Snyder and Spreitzer 1976, and Yamaguchi 1984). These studies concluded that primary sport involvement is greater when attitude toward sport is positive, and when the person is believes in the importance of exercise in maintaining their health and fitness levels.

Table 42
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Attitude Toward Sport on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables	
	Primary	Secondary
Sport Attitude	.47 (9.6)*	.15 (2.7)*
R^2	.22	.02
R^2 (Adjusted)	.22	.02
F	91.6*	7.4*

T-Values in Parantheses.

* P<.01

Table 43
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Attitude Toward Health on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables	
	Primary	Secondary
Health Attitude	.33 (6.4)*	.10 (1.88)
R^2	.109	.010
R^2 (Adjusted)	.107	.007
F	41.4*	3.5

T-Values in Parantheses.

* P<.01

Proposition 6:

The greater the perceived athletic ability, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport.

This proposition was supported for primary and secondary involvement in sport (Table 44). Specifically, there were significant relationships (P<.01) between perceived athletic ability and primary and secondary sport involvement (ß=.36 and ß=.24 respectively). These results are consistent with several empirical studies which stated that perceived athletic ability influences sport involvement (e.g., Kenyon 1970; Snyder and Spreitzer 1976, 1978).

Table 44
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Perceived Athletic Ability on Sport Involvement

Variables	**Dependent Variables**	
	Primary	**Secondary**
Perceived Ability	.36 (7.15)*	.24 (4.46)*
R^2	.13	.056
R^2 (Adjusted)	.13	.053
F	51.2*	19.9*

T-Values in Parantheses.

* P<.01

Proposition 7:

Assuming that sport is perceived as an agent of social integration, the greater the desire to be socially integrated, the greater the involvement in sport with Canadian individuals.

Two indicators were used as measurements of social integration: (1) primary and secondary sport involvement, and (2) involvement in sport with Canadian friends. The data in Table 45 support the first part of the proposition. That is, the greater the desire of individuals to be socially integrated, the greater their primary and secondary sport involvement. The results were statistically significant for both patterns of involvement, although the association was somewhat stronger for primary than for secondary involvement.

However, as noted earlier, there was a prerequisite for the proposition: the student had to have plans to settle in the receiving country, hence, a control variable was added to the analysis (see Table 45). Students who indicated that they planned to return to their home country after the completion of their degree (question 12) were excluded from the analysis. Interestingly, the findings revealed stronger associations than before, linking the desire to be socially integrated and primary and secondary involvement in sport.

Table 45
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Integration on Sport Involvement

Variables	Primary	Secondary
	Dependent Variables	
Integration	.15 (.20)	.13 (.16)
T-Values	2.8* (2.56)*	2.5** (2.06)**
R^2	.02 (.04)	.02 (.03)
R^2 (Adjusted)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.02)*
F	7.9* (6.56)*	6.1** (4.24)**

- The results with a control variable are in the parantheses.
* P<.01
** P<.05

The second step in the analysis involved examining the connection between individuals' desire to be socially integrated and their sport involvement with Canadian and home country friends. As shown in Table 46, there was a positive and significant association between the desire of a person to be socially integrated, and their involvement in sport with a Canadian friend. In contrast, no meaningful relationship was found between the desire to integrate and sport involvement with a home country friend.

Table 46
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Integration on Sport Involvement with Canadian and Home Country Friends

Variables	Dependent Variables Canadian Friend	 Home Friend
Integration	.13 (2.5)*	.004 (.071)
R^2	.02	.000
R^2 (Adjusted)	.01	-.003
F	6.4*	.005

T-Values in parantheses.
* P<.05

D. Situational Dimension:

Proposition 8(a):

The greater the influence of a home country peer group concerning sport involvement, the greater the propensity to be involved in sport.

Proposition 8(b):

The greater the Canadian peer group influence in terms of sport involvement, the greater the propensity to be involved in sport.

Proposition 8(c):

The greater the influence of a peer group from other countries concerning sport involvement, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport.

Two indicators of peer groups' influences were tested for each of the above propositions: (1) peer group encouragement (question 29), and (2) peer group sport participation (question 30). Hence, a multi-variable regression analysis was utilized to test the relations between peer groups' influences and primary and secondary sport involvement.

Table 47
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Home Country Peer Group on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Encouragement	-.013 (-.202)	.09 (1.27)
Involvement	.35 (5.12)*	.23 (3.27)*
R^2	.12	.07
R^2 (Adjusted)	.11	.06
F	14.5*	8.6*

T-Values in parantheses.
* P<.01

Table 48
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Canadian Peer Group on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables	
	Primary	Secondary
Encouragement	.17 (2.5)*	.03 (.52)
Involvement	.26 (3.9)	.09 (1.3)
R^2	.12	.011
R^2 (Adjusted)	.11	.002
F	14.1**	

T-Values in parantheses.
* P<.05
** P<.01

Table 49
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Peer Group From Other Countries on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables	
	Primary	Secondary
Encouragement	.13 (1.8)	.08 (.99)
Involvement	.28 (3.82)*	.23 (3.01)*
R^2	.11	.065
R^2 (Adjusted)	.10	.054
F	10.6*	5.8*

T-Values in parantheses.
* P<.01

As seen in Table 47, proposition 8(a) was partially supported in this study. The findings indicated there were positive and significant associations between a home country friend's actual participation in sport, and a respondent's primary and secondary sport involvement. The greater the home country friend's involvement in sport, the greater the respondent's primary and secondary sport involvement (ß=.35, ß=.23 respectively). In contrast, no relationship was found between the home country peer group's encouragement to participate in sport, and a respondent's primary and secondary involvement.

Proposition 8(b), with respect to Canadian peer group's influence, was supported for primary involvement in sport (see Table 48). A significant positive association between Canadian peer group's encouragement and primary sport involvement was found in this study. Similarly, a positive association was observed for Canadian peer group sport participation and respondents' primary sport involvement. This proposition did not hold for secondary sport involvement.

Finally, Table 49 presents the effect of a peer group from another country on sport involvement. Interestingly, the findings suggest a similar pattern as for the home country peer group (Table 47). A significant positive relationship was found between the peer group in actual sport participation and respondents' primary and secondary sport involvement (ß=.28, ß=.23 respectively). As before, no relationship was found between peer group encouragement and respondents' sport involvement. These results provide partial support for the findings of those studies claiming that a peer group is highly influential in socializing an individual into sport (e.g., McPherson and Kenyon 1978; Kenyon and Knoop, 1978; McPherson 1980). It should be noted, however, that the data in this study suggest that peer group participation in sport is a stronger predictor for a respondent's involvement, than is peer group encouragement to participate in sport.

Proposition 8(d):

The greater the family members' (spouse and children) interest in sport or physical activity, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport.

As was done for the peer group proposition, two indicators measured the influence of the family: (1) the family's encouragement to participate in sport, and (2) the family's actual sport participation. The data provided in Table 50 indicated unique relations between family influence and respondents' sport involvement. A strong, highly significant association (ß=.58) was found between family sport participation and respondent's primary involvement in sport. Furthermore, the effect of family members' encouragement to engage in sport on respondents' primary involvement was negatively related (ß=-.32).

An explanation for the negative association may be due to the causality relations in the model. It is possible that the model is incorrect in this instance, in that causality is reversed. That is, the less the respondent's involvement in sport, the greater the encouragement to participate from family members.

Finally, this proposition was rejected for secondary sport involvement, as there was not a significant relationship between family members' encouragement to participate in sport and respondents' secondary sport involvement.

Table 50
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Family on Sport Involvement

Variables	**Dependent Variables** **Primary**	 **Secondary**
Encouragement	-.32 (-2.73)*	-.05 (-.36)
Involvement	.58 (4.95)*	.25 (1.83)
R^2	.27	.05
R^2 (Adjusted)	.25	.02
F	12.35*	1.84

T-Values in parantheses.
*   P<.01

Proposition 8(e):

The greater the frequency of encouragement from a sport instructor or other teachers in the university, the greater the propensity for involvement in physical activity.

The one measure of teacher influence was the degree of teachers' encouragement to participate in sport. It was assumed here that the respondents might not be familiar with the actual sport involvement patterns of their teachers. This proposition was untenable for primary and secondary sport involvement. As shown in Table 51, no significant associations were found between teachers' encouragement and respondents' primary and secondary sport involvement. These findings may be due to a more formal academic environment in some foreign countries. In contrast to the North American situation, there is a greater social distance between professors and students in some foreign countries. Foreign students who grew up in this more formal atmosphere might not attempt to interact socially with their professors, and as a result would not discuss any personal matters, let alone their sporting interests.

Table 51
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Teacher's Encouragement on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Encouragement	-.09 (-1.20)	-.03 (-.37)
R^2	.008	.008
R^2 (Adjusted)	.002	-.005
F	1.46	.14

T-Values in parantheses.

Proposition 9:

The greater the discretionary time available, the greater the foreign students' propensity to be involved in sport or physical activity.

Discretionary time was comprised of three aspects: (1) free time on weekdays and weekends, (2) study and work time and (3) travel time.

Table 52 presents the regression results pertaining to the relationship of available free time (weekdays and weekends) and sport involvement. As seen here, there was no association found between free time on weekdays and weekends during the school year, and primary and secondary sport involvement. The only exception was for free time on weekends where significant, positive association between free time available on weekends and secondary sport involvement was observed in this study (ß=.16).

A second regression analysis was computed for the effect of time spent working and studying as they related to sport, involvement. The findings in Table 53 show a significant negative association between time spent studying and primary sport involvement (ß=-.21). No significant relationship was found with regard to time spent working and primary and respondents' secondary sport involvement.

A third regression was computed to examine the effects on sport involvement of the time spent travelling to the university (question 44). As illustrated in Table 54, time spent travelling to the university was not related to respondents' primary and secondary sport involvement. Thus, the data indicated that of the three aspects of discretionary time, free time on weekends and study time were the most influential factors related to involvement in sport.

It should be noted that a oneway analysis was conducted to test whether there were significant differences between the faculty enrolled in, and primary and secondary sport involvement. As seen in Table 55 there were no major differences between faculties.

Table 52
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Free Time Available on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Weekdays	-.06 (.92)	.02 (.38)
Weekends	.03 (.55)	-.16 (-2.57)*
R^2	.002	.023
R^2 (Adjusted)	-.003	.017
F	.43	3.76*

T-Values in parantheses.
* P<.05

Table 53
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Time Spent Working and Studying on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Work	.08 (1.16)	.04 (.63)
Study	-.21 (-3.03)*	-.08 (-1.14)
R^2	.05	.009
R^2 (Adjusted)	.04	-.000
F	5.9*	.98

T-Values in parantheses.
* P<.01

Table 54
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of
Travel Time to the University on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Travel	-.009 (-.13)	-.051 (-.73)
R^2	.000	.002
R^2 (Adjusted)	-.004	-.002
F	.017	.54

T-Values in parantheses.

Table 55
Oneway Analysis of Primary and Secondary
Sport Involvement by Faculty

Faculty	Primary Involvement			Secondary Involvement		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Arts	59	3.1	1.7	50	15.4	6.2
Education	52	3.0	1.4	43	15.5	5.9
Engineering	45	2.6	1.4	33	12.8	4.3
Science	73	2.7	1.6	66	14.9	5.7
Graduate Studies	143	2.7	1.6	105	13.8	5.2
Others*	25	2.9	1.7	21	16.1	5.5

*"Others" includes the following faculties: (1) Dentistry; (2) Law; (3) Medicine; and (4) Pharmacy.

Proposition 10:

The greater the opportunity set in the community, the greater the propensity for involvement in sport.

Opportunity set was comprised of two indicators: (1) availability of sport facilities and (2) membership in a sport club. Approximately one third of the respondents lived on campus, with the remainder residing off campus. It was assumed here that the nearest sport facilities for those living on campus would be the university's facilities. Hence, there is ample opportunity to engage in sport for students who live on campus. On the other hand, students who live off campus might not have sport facilities located near their homes.

The first step in the analysis was to test whether there were significant differences in sport involvement based on where the students resided. The next step was to determine what effect distance of residence from sport facilities had on primary and secondary sport involvement (see question 45). This latter analysis was conducted only for students living off campus.

Table 56 provides the results of a T-Test between students living on campus and those living off campus. As seen in this Table, there was no significant difference for respondents' primary and secondary sport involvement based on the location of their residence. In the same vein the distance the respondent had to travel to the nearest sport facility was not a factor in their primary and secondary sport involvement (Table 57).

A second measure of opportunity set was whether or not a person was a member of a sport organization. Table 58 presents the regression results of the effect of membership in a sport club on primary and secondary sport involvement. A positive and significant association between membership in a sport club and primary and secondary sport involvement were identified (ß=.20 and ß=.13 respectively). Being a member of a sport club meant the student was more likely to be involved in sport. In sum, this proposition was partially supported; availability of sport facilities did not influence foreign student sport involvement, whereas holding a membership in a sport club was related to primary and secondary sport involvement.

Table 56
Means, SD and T-Values of Sport Involvement for Students Living On and Off Campus

	Primary Involvement				Secondary Involvement			
	N	Mean	SD	T-Value	N	Mean	SD	T-Value
ON Campus	168	2.84	1.7	.17	135	14.6	5.7	.01
OFF Campus	259	2.86	1.5		207	14.6	5.4	

V

Table 57
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Distance From Facilty on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	Secondary
Distance	-.06 (-.88)	.02 (.28)
R^2	.004	.000
R^2 (Adjusted)	-.001	-.005
F	.77	.07

T-Values in parantheses.

Table 58
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Membership in a Sport Organization on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	Secondary
Membership	.20 (3.7)*	.13 (2.4)**
R^2	.03	.016
R^2 (Adjusted)	.03	.014
F	13.6*	5.8**

T-Values in parantheses.
* P<.01
** P<.05

Proposition 11:

The greater the identification with sports teams in the community, the greater the degree of consumer sport socialization.

Two indicators for identification were used in the study: (1) the extent to which respondents wore a team's paraphernalia and the extent to which they collected souvenirs of their favorite team (question 35) and, (2) whether or not students claimed to have a favorite sport team (questions 32 and 33).

The first step in the analysis was to produce a composite measure for indicator 1 (respondents wear team shirts and collect souvenirs). The reliability coefficent for these two items was .57, thus, a composite measure ("Identity") was computed. Next, the effect of "Identity" on secondary sport involvement was analyzed.

As shown in Table 59, there was a positive and significant association between "Identity" and secondary sport involvement (β=.23). The greater the identification (wearing team shirts and collecting souvenirs) the greater secondary sport involvement.

The second indicator of identification was whether or not they had a favorite sport team. In order to analyze the relations between indicators and secondary sport involvement, several tests were conducted:

1. A T-Test between students who have a favorite team and those who do not have one.
2. A Bivariate regression for the effect of a favorite sport team on sport involvement.

3. A T-Test between students who indicated that their favorite sport team was the "Edmonton Oilers" and students who did not have any favorite sport team.

As illustrated in Table 60, there were significant differences in primary and secondary sport involvement between students who had a favorite team and students who did not have one. Students who admired or identified with a sports team were more likely to be involved in sport than were students who did not have a favorite sport team. The regression analysis in Table 61 shows a positive and significant association between having a favorite sport team and primary and secondary sport involvement. The results were particularly significant for secondary sport involvement (β=.52).

Finally, it was assumed that an interest in the "Oilers" hockey team would be related to secondary sport involvement. Many students admire this team and indicated that it was their favorite team. Indeed, a significant difference ($P<.01$) on secondary sport involvement was found between those having the Oilers' as a favorite team and those who did not have a favorite team.

Table 59
Standardized Regression Results of the Effect of Identity on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	Dependent Variables Secondary
Identity	-.12 (-1.32)	.23 (2.6)*
R^2	.014	.054
R^2 (Adjusted)	.006	.046
F	1.74	6.8*

T-Values in parantheses.
* $P<.05$

Table 60
Means, SD and T-Values for Students Who Have a Favorite Team and Students Who Do Not Have One

	Primary Involvement				Secondary Involvement			
Favorite Team	N	Mean	SD	T-Value	N	Mean	SD	T-Value
1. Yes	154	2.5	1.5	3.0*	121	10.8	3.9	11.07*
2. No	261	3.0	1.6		214	16.8	5.2	

$P<.01$

Table 61
Standardized Regression Results for the Effect of Favorite Sport Team on Sport Involvement

Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Favorite Team	.15 (2.7)*	.52 (11.06)*
R^2	.02	.27
R^2 (Adjusted)	.01	.27
F	7.4*	122.5*

T-Values in parantheses.
*   P<.01

Table 62
Means, SD and T-Values of Secondary Sport Involvement for The Oilers' Fans and Students Who Do Not Have a Favorite Team

		Secondary Sport		
	N	Means	SD	T-Value
Oilers' Fans	83	11.0	3.7	8.84*
Others	224	16.6	5.3	

P<.01

E. Summary:

Propositions were tested using a bivariate regression analysis. Most of the propositions were supported in the predicted direction, while several propositions were only partially supported. The following independent variables did not significantly affect primary and secondary sport involvement: (1) social economic status and parents education, (2) perceived popularity of sport in different countries, (3) perceived importance of female sport participation, (4) encouragement given by a teacher to participate in sport, (5) the amount of free time, time spent at work, and the amount of time it took to travel from a respondent's home to the nearest sport facility, and (6) availability of facilities.

Part 3

Path Analysis

In the previous section, results of the bivariate regression indicated some unique relations between the independent and dependent variables. However as noted earlier, these findings could be invalid because of the possibility of spurious relationships. The following section extends the analysis by examining the influence of the antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions on the dependent variables by using path analysis. To simplify the model, several independent variables were excluded from the path model. Based on their lack of significance in the bivariate analysis, the following variables were excluded from the path models: (1)

teacher's encouragement, (2) free time, (3) work time, (4) travel time and (5) availability of facilities.

In this section, a summary of the zero-order correlations, the direct and the indirect effect of independent variables, and the path models are presented and discussed. A series of analyses were conducted for primary and secondary sport involvement. The literature on socialization into sport indicates that the socialization process varies by marital status, by sex, and by country of birth (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983; Loy et al, 1978). Thus, the results of this path analysis are presented separately for sex, marital status and country of origin. An additional analysis was conducted for graduate and undergraduate students based on the assumption that certain differences exist between foreign students depending on the degree program enrolled in.

To keep the path models as simple as possible, two procedures were applied:

(1) Only the postulated indirect effects are presented in the models.

(2) Missing values were substituted with variables' means.

A summary of all possible indirect effects appears in the appropriate Tables, however, only the predicted indirect effects are presented and discussed in each model. In addition, a missing value for a particular variable was replaced with the mean of this variable. In the previous sections, list-wise deletion procedures were applied, however, in this section, missing values were substituted with the means since a loss of information did not occur as in the list-wise deletion procedure. It has been found that for most of the variables the number of missing values was between 5 and 25 except for three variables: (1) attending sport events, (2) peer group participation, and (3) family participation.

Since secondary sport involvement included not only attending sport, but also reading, viewing and talking about sport events, it has been assumed here that the procedure of substituting the mean for missing values would not change the results. Moreover, an additional analysis was conducted to determine whether excluding these variables from the path model would change the results. The analysis indicated that the results were unchanged.

A. Path Analysis for Primary and Secondary Involvement in Sport:

Table 63 provides a summary of the zero-order correlations between each independent and dependent variable. The direct and the indirect effects of the independent variables are presented in Table 64.

Table 63
Summary of Zero-Order Correlations of Dependent with Independent Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	
	Primary	Secondary
Past Experience ("Past")	.152*	.398*
Income Occupation ("SES")	-.064	-.109*
Parents Education ("Education")	.060	-.048
Popularity of Sport ("Popular")	-.002	.172*
Sport Attitude ("Spattitude")	.409*	.134*
Health Attitude ("HT Attitude")	.309*	.092*
Perceived Ability ("Ability")	.339*	.214*
Social Integration ("Integration")	.092*	.122
Canadian Friend ("CanadFr")	.245*	.077*
Home Friend ("HomeFr")	.287*	.194*
Other Friend ("OtherFr")	.265*	.145*
Family Influence ("Family")	.188*	.087*
Membership in Club ("Membership")	.205*	.120*
Favorite Team "(FavrTeam")	.144*	.457*
Study Time ("Study")	-.032	-.046

* P<.05

- Names of Variables in Parantheses

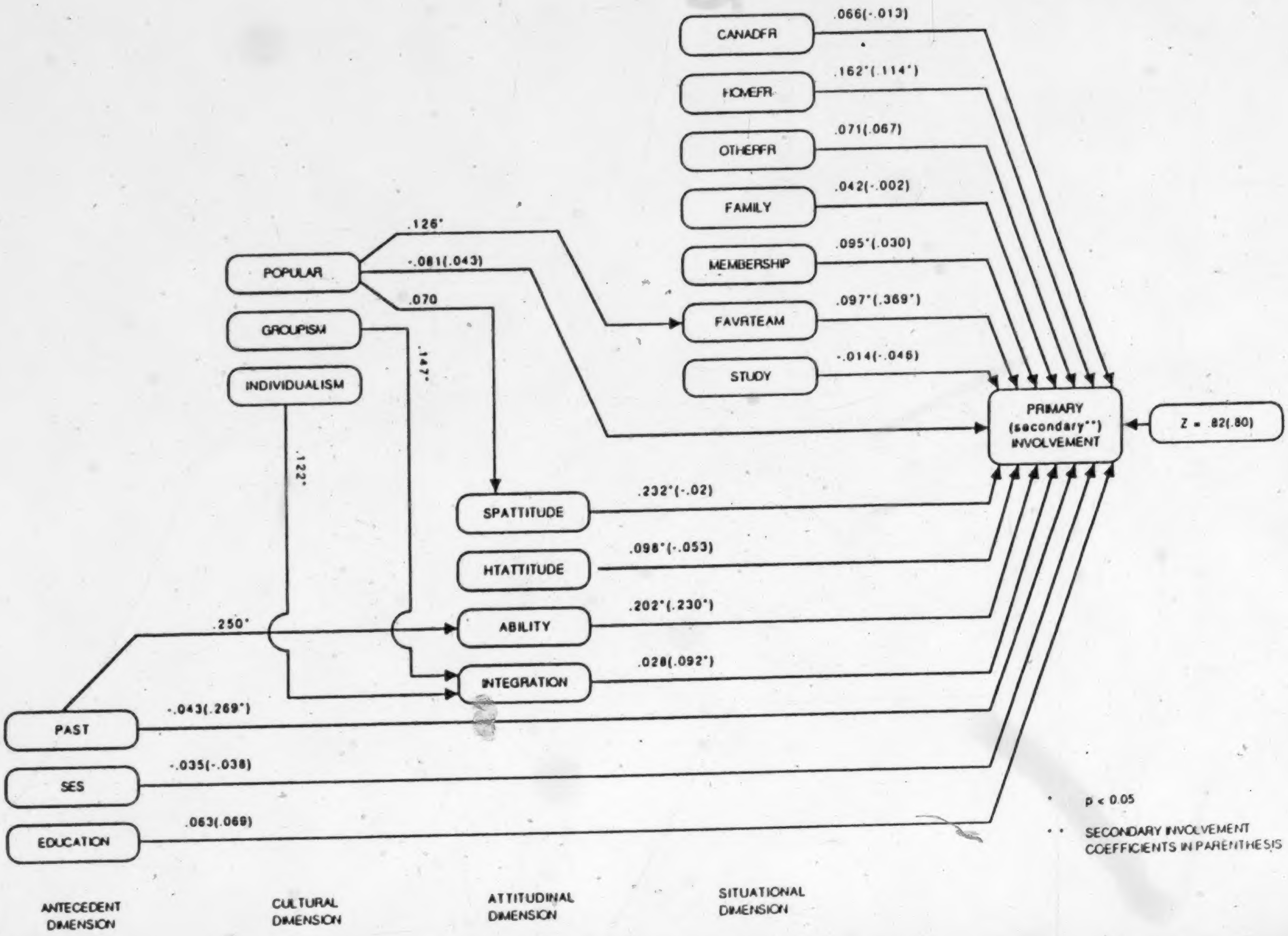
Table 64
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent Variables on Primary and Secondary Sport Involvement

	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Past	-.043 (.269)	.195 (.129)	.152 (.398)
SES	-.035 (-.038)	-.029 (-.071)	-.064 (-.109)
Education	.063 (.069)	-.003 (-.117)	.060 (-.048)
Popular	-.081 (.043)	.079 (.129)	-.002 (.172)
Groupism	---- -----	-.10 (-.10)	-.10 (-.10)
Individualism	---- -----	.04 (-.12)	.04 (-.12)
Spattitude	.232 (-.02)	.177 (.154)	.409 (.134)
Atattitude	.098 (-.053)	.211 (.145)	.309 (.092)
Ability	.202 (-.103)	.137 (.317)	.339 (.214)
Integration	.028 (.092)	.064 (.03)	.092 (.122)
CanadFr	.066 (-.013)	.179 (.09)	.245 (.077)
HomeFr	.162 (.114)	.125 (.08)	.287 (.194)
OtherFr	.071 (.067)	.194 (.078)	.265 (.145)
Family	.042 (-.002)	.146 (.089)	.188 (.087)
Membership	.095 (.030)	.11 (.09)	.205 (.120)
Favreteam	.097 (.369)	.047 (.088)	.144 (.457)
Study	-.014 (-.046)	-.018 (00)	-.032 (-.046)

- Secondary Involvement's Coeffecients in Parentheses.

The results of the path analysis for the whole sample are presented in Figure 5. First, with respect to the antecedent dimension, neither past involvement in sport nor SES or Education had a significant and direct effect on primary sport involvement. Furthermore, the antecedent dimension did not have a significant effect on secondary involvement except for past involvement. That is, past experience had a positive and direct effect (.269) on secondary sport involvement. Past experience also exerted a

FIGURE 5: PATH-ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS' SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT


CANADFR
.066(-.013)
HOMEFR
.162*(.114*)
OTHERFR
.071(.067)
FAMILY
.042(-.002)
MEMBERSHIP
.095*(.030)
FAVRTEAM
.097*(.369*)
STUDY
-.014(-.046)
POPULAR
.126*
-.081(.043)
.070
GROUPISM
.147*
INDIVIDUALISM
.122*
PRIMARY (secondary**) INVOLVEMENT
Z = .82(.80)
SPATTITUDE
.232*(-.02)
HTATTITUDE
.098*(-.053)
ABILITY
.202*(.230*)
INTEGRATION
.028(.092*)
.250*
PAST
-.043(.269*)
SES
-.035(-.038)
EDUCATION
.063(.069)
* p < 0.05
** SECONDARY INVOLVEMENT COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESIS
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
CULTURAL DIMENSION
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION

statistically significant indirect influence, through its influence on perceived ability.

Second, the popularity of sport in each country did not exert a strong and direct effect on primary and secondary sport involvement. Indirectly, however, it had an effect on sport involvement through favorite team (.126) and sport attitude (.070). In addition, "groupism" and "individualism," which were not related directly to sport involvement, had a significant effect on integration.

Third, the attitudinal dimension demonstrated a relatively strong effect on primary sport involvement. A person's attitude toward sport and their perceived athletic ability were strong predictors of primary involvement. Also, the attitude toward health variable exerted a statistically significant influence on primary sport involvement. This finding suggests that a person's attitude toward sport and health, and their perceived athletic ability, were important factors in determining their sport participation. Two variables had a significant effect on secondary sport involvement: (1) perceived athletic ability, and (2) attitude toward social integration. These findings corroborate the results of the bivariate regressions in the previous section.

Fourth, in terms of the situational dimension, only home country friend and favorite sport team had a greater influence on primary and secondary sport involvement than did the other variables. Moreover, favorite team was strongly influenced by the popularity of a sport in each country, hence, there was a strong indirect effect of the cultural dimension on sport involvement. The above findings denote that a home country peer group and identification with a favorite team were strong predictors of primary and secondary sport involvement. Further, the data presented in Figure 5 indicate that the sport activity of students who were club members was significantly greater than the sport activity of non-members. Methodologically, the club membership variable is an important control variable. This variable was included in the analysis to ensure that the effect of other independent variables such as peer-group encouragement were not a result of being a club member.

In summary, the path model for the whole sample indicated that primary sport involvement was influenced strongly by the attitudinal dimension while secondary sport involvement was influenced by both the attitudinal and the situational dimensions. From those findings appears that if foreign students were involved in sport in the past, if they had a positive attitude toward sport and personal health, if they perceived themselves as having athletic ability, if they identified with a sport team and received encouragement from a home-country friend, then they would be more likely to be socialized into sport in Canada.

B. Path Analysis for the Process of Socialization into Sport for Male Foreign Students

Table 65 presents a summary of the zero-order correlations for male foreign students. Table 66 and Figure 6 demonstrate the direct and indirect effect of independent variables on the dependent variables.

Table 65
Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Male Foreign Students

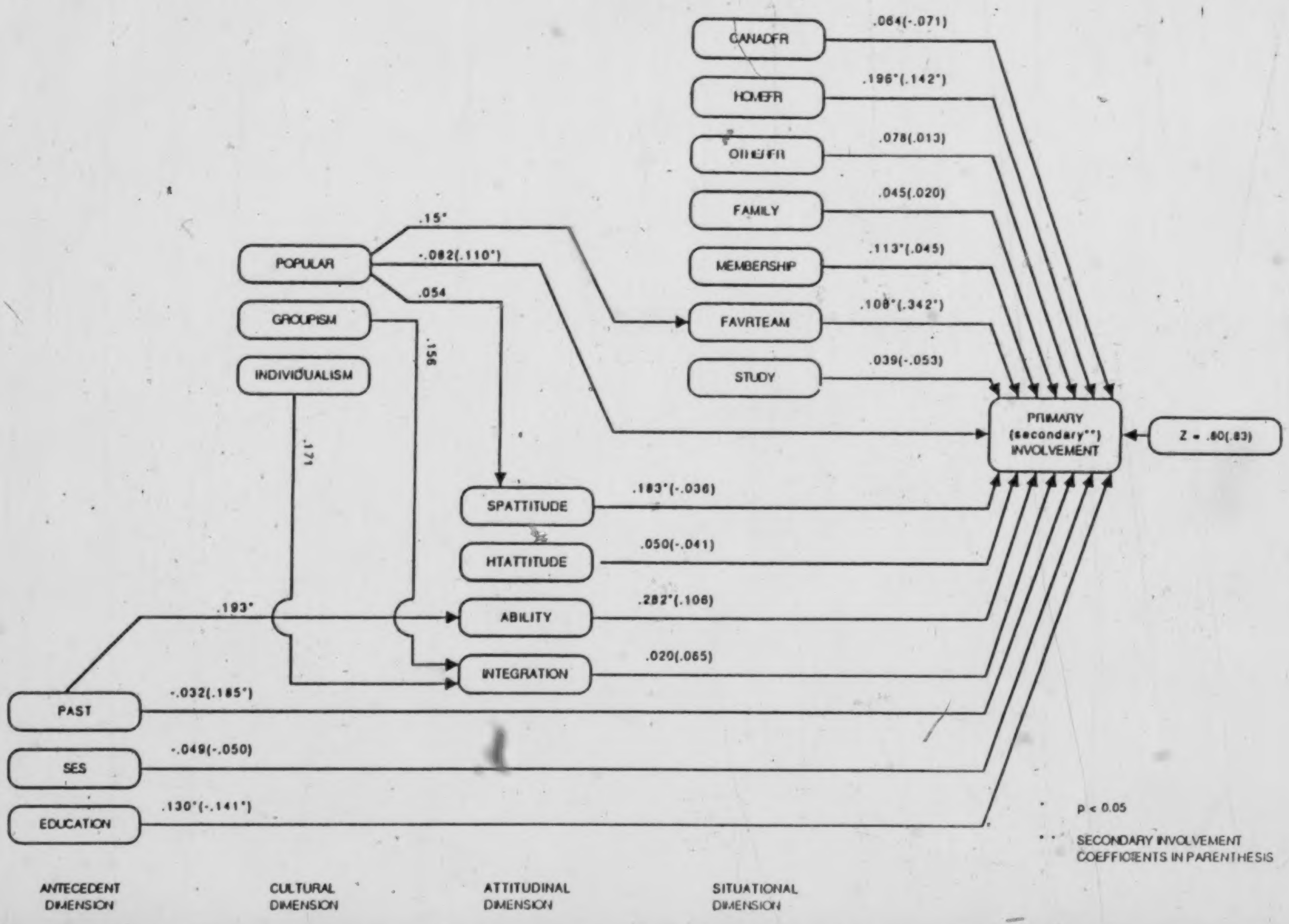
Independent Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Past	.133*	.302*
SES	-.099*	-.122*
Education	.083	-.144*
Popular	-.006	.217*
Spattitude	.371*	.083
Atattitude	.294*	.086
Ability	.389*	.168*
Integration	.053	.093*
CanadFr	.259*	-.003
HomeFr	.301*	.185*
OtherFr	.279*	.077
Family	.230*	.132*
Membership	.211*	.102*
Favreteam	.151*	.417*
Study	-.015	-.052

P<.05

Table 66
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Male Foreign Students

	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Past	-.032 (.185)	.101 (.117)	.133 (.302)
SES	-.049 (-.050)	-.148 (-.172)	-.099 (-.122)
Education	.130 (-.141)	-.213 (.285)	-.083 (.144)
Popular	-.082 (.110)	-.006 (.107)	-.006 (.217)
Groupism	---- -----	-.112 (-.103)	-.112 (-.103)
Individualism	---- -----	.001 (-.051)	.001 (-.051)
Spattitude	.183 (-.036)	.188 (.119)	.371 (.083)
Atattitude	.050 (-.041)	.244 (.127)	.294 (.086)
Ability	.282 (.106)	.107 (.062)	.389 (.168)
Integration	.020 (.065)	.033 (.028)	.053 (.093)
CanadFr	.064 (-.071)	.195 (.068)	.259 (-.003)
HomeFr	.196 (.142)	.105 (.043)	.301 (.185)
OtherFr	.078 (.013)	.201 (.064)	.279 (.077)
Family	.045 (.020)	.185 (.112)	.230 (.132)
Membership	.113 (.045)	.098 (.057)	.211 (.102)
Favreteam	.108 (.342)	.043 (.075)	.151 (.417)
Study	.039 (-.053)	-.054 (.001)	-.015 (-.052)

FIGURE 6: PATH-ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT FOR MALE STUDENTS


CANADFR
.064(-.071)
HOMEFR
.196*(.142*)
OTHERFR
.078(.013)
FAMILY
.045(.020)
MEMBERSHIP
.113*(.045)
FAVRTEAM
.108*(.342*)
STUDY
.039(-.053)
POPULAR
.15*
-.082(.110*)
.054
GROUPISM
.156
INDIVIDUALISM
.171
PRIMARY (secondary**) INVOLVEMENT
Z = .80(.83)
SPATTITUDE
.183*(-.036)
HTATTITUDE
.050(-.041)
ABILITY
.282*(.108)
INTEGRATION
.020(.065)
.193*
PAST
-.032(.185*)
SES
-.049(-.050)
EDUCATION
.130*(-.141*)
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
CULTURAL DIMENSION
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION

* p < 0.05

** SECONDARY INVOLVEMENT COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESIS

As illustrated in Figure 6, there were some differences in the process of socialization into primary and secondary sport involvement for male foreign students. First, in terms of the antecedent dimension, past experience was one of the important predictors of secondary sport involvement, whereas this was not the case for primary involvement. Further, parents' education had a significant positive effect on primary involvement, but a significant negative effect on secondary involvement. Specifically, the greater the years of parents' education, the greater the respondents' primary involvement and the lower their secondary involvement. It should be emphasized that past experience had a significant indirect effect on primary and secondary sport involvement through its influence on perceived athletic ability.

Second, the popularity of sport in each country was one of the significant predictors for secondary involvement, while no significant effect was found for primary involvement. With respect to indirect effect, groupism and individualism demonstrated significant effects on integration. Third, within the attitudinal dimension, the attitude toward sport and perceived athletic ability were strong predictors of primary sport involvement. In contrast, neither attitude toward personal health nor attitude toward social integration had any effect on primary or secondary involvement.

Finally, it seems that the situational dimension accounts for much of the variance in the primary and secondary sport involvement of male foreign students. For primary involvement, the important predictors were home country friend's sport participation, identification with a favorite sport team, and membership in a sport club. The same factors influenced secondary sport involvement except for the club membership variable. These results are consistent with the findings of the whole sample.

C. Path Analysis for the Process of Socialization into Sport for Female Foreign Students

Table 67 provides a summary of the zero-order correlations between each independent and dependent variable for female foreign students. The direct and the indirect effects are presented in Table 68 and in Figure 7.

Table 67
Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Female Students

Independent Variables	**Dependent Variables**	
	Primary	**Secondary**
Past	.155	.362*
SES	-.005	-.160*
Education	-.021	.057
Popular	.032	.172*
Spattitude	.474*	.121
Atattitude	.352*	.140*
Ability	.196*	.231*
Integration	.137*	.091
CanadFr	.209*	.147*
HomeFr	.264*	.211*
OtherFr	.235*	.198*
Family	.097	.097
Membership	.166*	.019
Favreteam	.059	.440*
Study	-.035	.015

$P<.05$

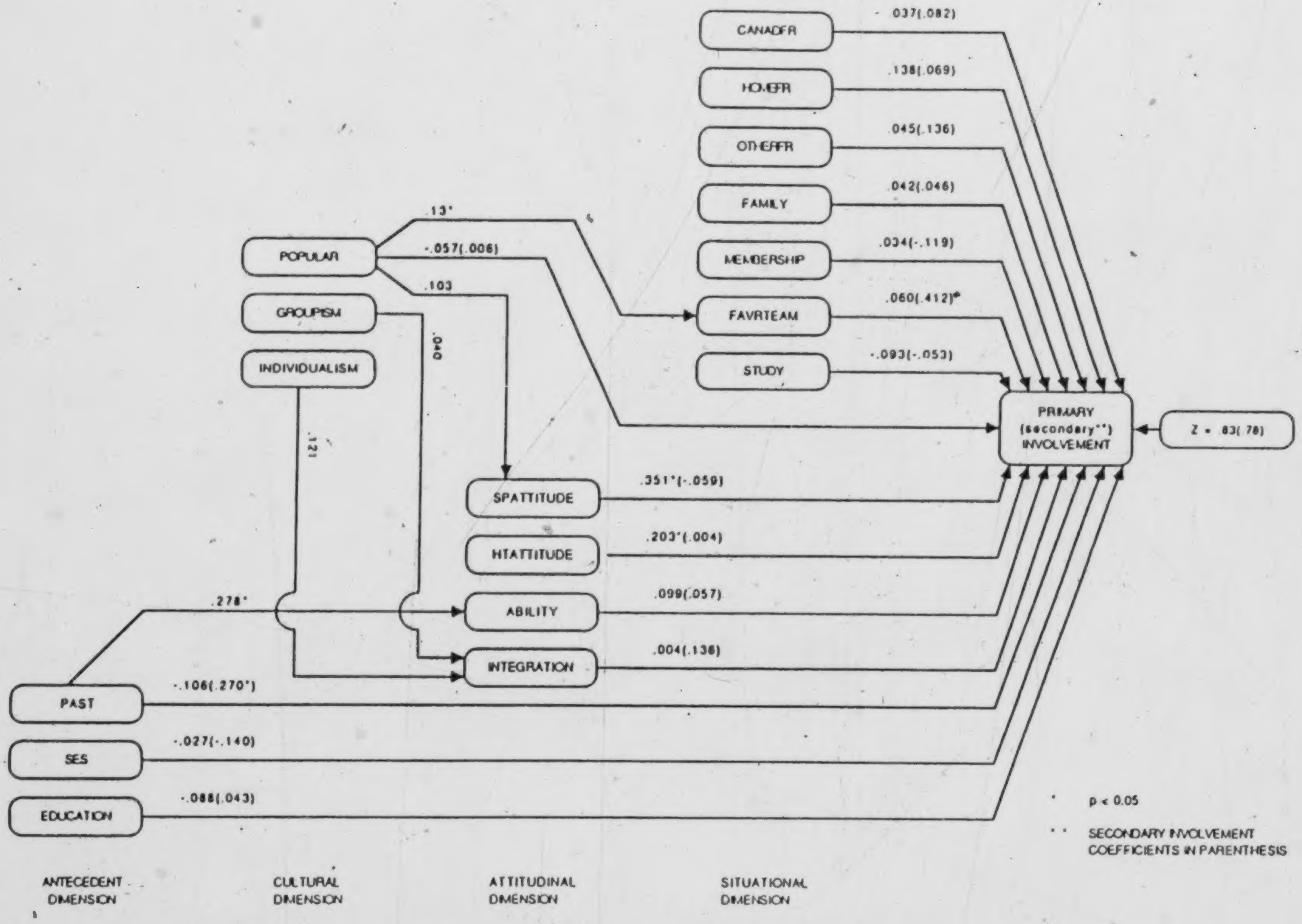
Table 68
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Female Students

	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Past	-.106 (.270)	.221 (.092)	.115 (.362)
SES	-.027 (-.140)	.022 (-.02)	-.005 (-.160)
Education	-.088 (.043)	.067 (.014)	-.021 (.057)
Popular	-.057 (.006)	.089 (.116)	.032 (.172)
Groupism	---- -----	-.089 (-.113)	-.089 (-.113)
Individualism	---- -----	.116 (-.163)	.116 (-.163)
Spattitude	.351 (-.059)	.123 (.18)	.474 (.121)
Atattitude	.203 (.004)	.149 (.136)	.352 (.140)
Ability	.099 (.057)	.099 (.174)	.196 (.231)
Integration	.004 (.136)	.133 (-.045)	.137 (.091)
CanadFr	.037 (.082)	.172 (.065)	.209 (.147)
HomeFr	.138 (.069)	.126 (.115)	.264 (.211)
OtherFr	.045 (.136)	.19 (.062)	.235 (.198)
Family	.042 (.096)	.055 (.001)	.097 (.097)
Membership	.034 (-.119)	.132 (.138)	.166 (.019)
Favreteam	.060 (.412)	-.001 (.028)	.059 (.440)
Study	-.093 (-.053)	.058 (.068)	-.035 (.015)

Secondary involvement's coefficients in parantheses.

As shown in Figure 7, there were some differences in the process of socialization into primary and secondary sport for female foreign students. Moreover, differences could be seen between males' and females' sport socialization. First, the antecedent dimension had no significant and direct effect on primary and secondary sport involvement, except for past experience. That is, past experience was an important predictor for females' secondary sport involvement. Past experience also had a strong and significant effect on perceived athletic ability. This

FIGURE 7: PATH-ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT FOR FEMALE STUDENTS


CANADFR
-.037(.082)
HOMEFR
.138(.069)
OTHERFR
.045(.136)
FAMILY
.042(.046)
MEMBERSHIP
.034(-.119)
FAVRTEAM
.060(.412)*
STUDY
-.093(-.053)
POPULAR
.13*
-.057(.006)
.103
GROUPISM
.040
INDIVIDUALISM
.121
SPATTITUDE
.351*(-.059)
HTATTITUDE
.203*(.004)
ABILITY
.099(.057)
INTEGRATION
.004(.136)
PAST
.278*
-.106(.270*)
SES
-.027(-.140)
EDUCATION
-.088(.043)
PRIMARY
(secondary**)
INVOLVEMENT
Z = .83(.78)
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
CULTURAL DIMENSION
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION

* $p < 0.05$

** SECONDARY INVOLVEMENT COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESIS

pattern was found for male students as well, although it was somewhat stronger for females. In contrast to male students, no significant relations were observed between female students', sport involvement and their parents' education.

Second, unlike the male students, the cultural dimension had no significant effects, directly or indirectly, on female students' sport involvement, except in one instance; the popularity of sport in each country had an indirect effect on whether they had a favorite sport team.

Third, with respect to the attitudinal dimension, attitudes toward sport and personal health significantly influenced primary sport involvement. As with male students, no variable in this dimension had a significant effect on secondary sport involvement.

Finally, the analysis of the situational dimension revealed some differences between male and female students. In contrast to male students, the situational dimension did not show any significant effect on primary and secondary sport involvement. The only exception was the existence of a favorite sport team, which was a strong predictor for females' secondary sport involvement.

D. Path Analysis for the Process of Socialization into Sport for Undergraduate Students

Tables 69 and 70 present the zero-order correlations and the direct and indirect effects of the independent variables on dependent variables for undergraduate students.

Table 69
Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Undergraduate Foreign Students

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	 Secondary
Past	.244*	.361*
SES	-.115	-.210*
Education	.166*	.094
Popular	.044	.153*
Spattitude	.506*	.152*
Atattitude	.365*	.107
Ability	.349*	.205*
Integration	.212*	.053
CanadFr	.211*	.045
HomeFr	.273*	.188*
OtherFr	.287*	.149*
Family	.048	.000
Membership	.249*	.183*
Favreteam	.150*	.528*
Study	.057	-.079

P<.05

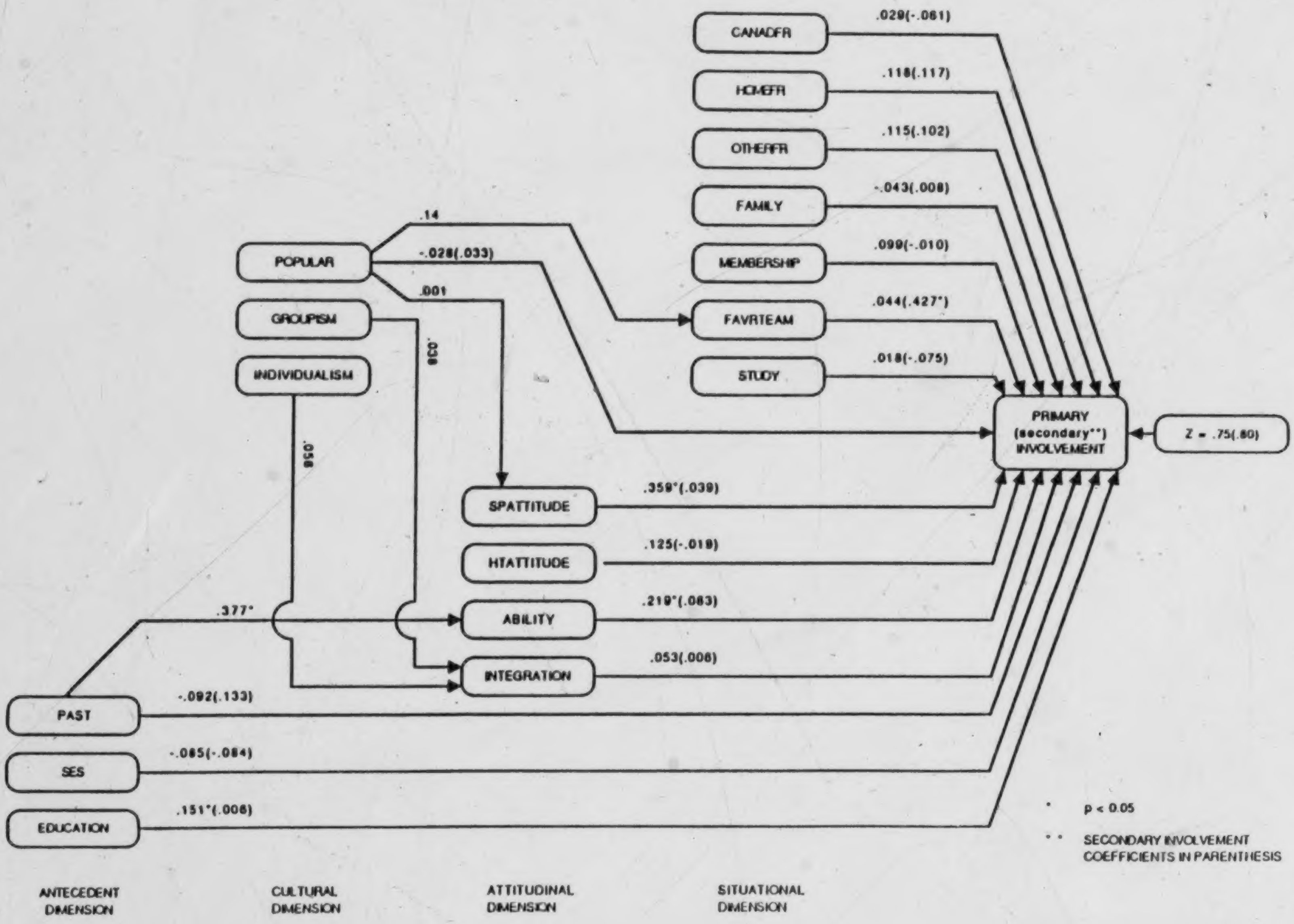
Table 70
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent Variables on Dependent Variables for Undergraduate Foreign Students

	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Past	-.092 (.133)	.336 (.228)	.244 (.361)
SES	-.085 (-.084)	-.030 (-.126)	-.115 (-.210)
Education	.151 (.006)	.015 (.088)	.166 (.094)
Popular	-.028 (.033)	.072 (.12)	.044 (.153)
Groupism	---- -----	-.015 (-.104)	-.015 (-.104)
Individualism	---- -----	-.042 (-.200)	-.042 (-.200)
Spattitude	.359 (.039)	.147 (.113)	.506 (.152)
Atattitude	.125 (-.019)	.240 (.126)	.365 (.107)
Ability	.219 (.063)	.130 (.142)	.349 (.205)
Integration	.053 (.006)	.159 (.047)	.212 (.053)
CanadFr	.029 (-.061)	.182 (.106)	.211 (.045)
HomeFr	.118 (.117)	.155 (.071)	.273 (.188)
OtherFr	.115 (.102)	.172 (.047)	.287 (.149)
Family	-.043 (.008)	.091 (-.008)	.048 (.000)
Membership	.099 (-.010)	.150 (.193)	.249 (.183)
Favreteam	.044 (.427)	.106 (.101)	.150 (.528)
Study	.018 (-.075)	.039 (-.004)	.057 (-.079)

Secondary involvement's coefficients in parantheses.

As shown in Figure 8, the process of socialization for undergraduate students into primary sport involvement is somewhat different than it is for secondary sport involvement. First, with respect to the antecedent dimension, there was a significant positive effect of parents' education on primary involvement, while no significant effect on secondary sport involvement was found among undergraduate foreign students. Past involvement had a positive indirect effect on primary sport involvement through perceived athletic ability.

FIGURE 8: PATH-ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT FOR UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS


CANADFR
.029(-.061)
HOMEFR
.118(.117)
OTHERFR
.115(.102)
FAMILY
-.043(.008)
MEMBERSHIP
.099(-.010)
FAVRTEAM
.044(.427*)
STUDY
.018(-.075)
POPULAR
.14
-.028(.033)
.001
GROUPISM
.038
INDIVIDUALISM
.058
PRIMARY (secondary**) INVOLVEMENT
Z = .75(.80)
SPATTITUDE
.359*(.039)
HTATTITUDE
.125(-.019)
ABILITY
.219*(.083)
INTEGRATION
.053(.006)
.377*
PAST
-.092(.133)
SES
-.085(-.084)
EDUCATION
.151*(.006)
* p < 0.05
** SECONDARY INVOLVEMENT COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESIS
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
CULTURAL DIMENSION
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION

Second, the cultural dimension had no significant effect, directly or indirectly, on primary and secondary sport involvement. Third, a significant positive effect of the attitudinal dimension was observed for primary sport involvement. A person's attitude toward sport, and their perceived athletic ability, exerted a significant influence on primary sport involvement. In contrast, the attitudinal dimension did not have a significant effect on secondary sport involvement.

Finally, the situational dimension did not contribute significantly to the explanation of variance in primary and secondary sport involvement. The only exception was the existence of a favorite sport team. As for the female cohort, a favorite sport team was an important determinant of secondary sport involvement.

Overall, it is apparent that the primary sport involvement of foreign undergraduate students was influenced more by the attitudinal dimension than by the antecendent, cultural, and situational dimensions.

E. Path Analysis for the Process of Socialization into Sport for Foreign Graduate Students

Table 71 presents a summary of the zero-order correlations between each independent and dependent variables for graduate students. The direct, indirect and the total effects are presented in Table 72.

Table 71
Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Graduate Students

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	Secondary
Past	.108*	.412*
SES	-.042	-.059
Education	.011	-.132*
Popular	-.029	.170*
Spattitude	.342*	.083
Atattitude	.287*	.076
Ability	.329*	.201*
Integration	.049	.162*
CanadFr	.247*	.079
HomeFr	.288*	.186*
OtherFr	.251*	.127*
Family	.213*	.101*
Membership	.182*	.084
Favreteam	.153*	.427*
Study	-.070	-.040

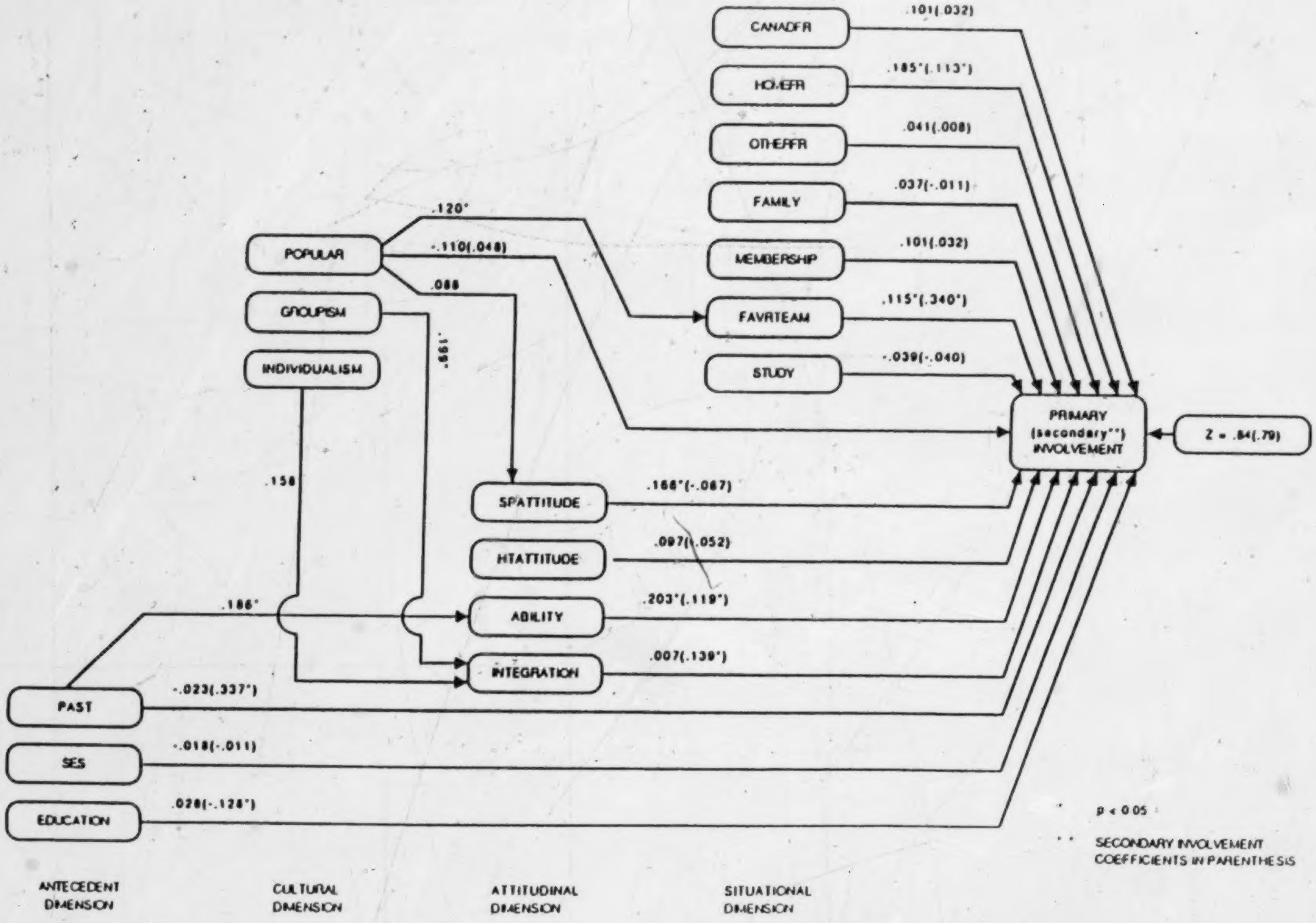
P<.05

Table 72
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Graduate Students

	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Past	-.032 (.337)	.131 (.075)	.108 (.412)
SES	-.018 (-.011)	-.051 (-.048)	-.042 (-.059)
Education	.028 (-.128)	-.017 (-.004)	.011 (-.132)
Popular	-.110 (.048)	.081 (.122)	-.029 (.170)
Groupism	---- -----	-.140 (-.088)	-.140 (-.088)
Individualism	---- -----	-.123 (-.024)	-.123 (-.024)
Spattitude	.166 (-.067)	-.508 (.150)	.342 (.083)
Atattitude	.097 (-.052)	.190 (.128)	.287 (.076)
Ability	.203 (.119)	.126 (.082)	.329 (.201)
Integration	.007 (.139)	.042 (.023)	.049 (.162)
CanadFr	.101 (.032)	.146 (.044)	.247 (.079)
HomeFr	.185 (.113)	.103 (.073)	.288 (.186)
OtherFr	.041 (.008)	.21 (.119)	.251 (.127)
Family	.037 (-.011)	.176 (.112)	.213 (.101)
Membership	.101 (.032)	.081 (.052)	.182 (.084)
Favreteam	.115 (.340)	.038 (.087)	.153 (.427)
Study	-.039 (-.040)	-.031 (000)	-.070 (-.040)

Secondary involvement coefficients in parantheses

FIGURE 9: PATH-ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT FOR GRADUATE STUDENTS


CANADFR
.101(.032)
HOMEFR
.185*(.113*)
OTHERFR
.041(.008)
FAMILY
.037(-.011)
MEMBERSHIP
.101(.032)
FAVRTEAM
.115*(.340*)
STUDY
-.039(-.040)
POPULAR
.120*
-.110(.048)
.088
GROUPISM
.199*
INDIVIDUALISM
.158
PRIMARY (secondary**) INVOLVEMENT
Z = .84(.79)
SPATTITUDE
.168*(-.087)
HTATTITUDE
.097(.052)
ABILITY
.203*(.119*)
INTEGRATION
.007(.139*)
.186*
PAST
-.023(.337*)
SES
-.018(-.011)
EDUCATION
.028(-.128*)
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
CULTURAL DIMENSION
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION

* $p < 0.05$

** SECONDARY INVOLVEMENT COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESIS

As illustrated in Figure 9, the process of socialization into sport is somewhat different for graduate than for undergraduate students. As noted earlier, however, these findings should be interpreted with caution since the undergraduate population had a high percentage of students from Hong Kong (59%). These students were less active in sport than were students from other countries.

Unlike the undergraduate cohort, all antecedent (past experience, parents' education), cultural (popular, groupism, individualism), attitudinal (attitude to sport, perceived ability, interpretation) and situational variables (home country friend, favorite sport team) had a significant effect on graduate students' primary and secondary sport involvement. Moreover, all indirect effects were significant except for the effect of the popularity of sport in the home country on attitude to sport.

It is apparent that these foreign graduate students' primary sport involvement was influenced strongly by the attitudinal and situational dimensions. The cultural dimension (popular) also exerted a significant effect on primary sport involvement, but in the opposite direction to that predicted. Furthermore, the antecedent, attitudinal and situational dimensions accounted for most of the variance in secondary sport involvement. Thus, it appeared that if graduate students had past experience with sport, had parents who were not highly educated, had positive perceptions of their sport abilities, favorable attitudes toward social integration, received encouragement from home country friends, and had favorite sport teams, they were more likely to be socialized into secondary sport.

F. Path Analysis for the Process of Socialization into Sport for Married Foreign Students

Table 73 provides a summary of the zero-order correlations between each independent and dependent variable for the married cohort. Table 74 and Figure 10 demonstrates the direct and the indirect effects on sport involvement.

Table 73
Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Married Foreign Students

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables Primary	Dependent Variables Secondary
Past	.153*	.314*
SES	-.095	-.012
Education	.028	-.163*
Popular	-.065	.087*
Spattitude	.323*	.153*
Atattitude	.227*	.182*
Ability	.230*	.251*
Integration	.004	.081
CanadFr	.301*	.139*
HomeFr	.329*	.162*
OtherFr	.280*	.149*
Family	.294*	.127
Membership	.194*	.123
Favreteam	.149*	.505*
Study	-.060	-.163*

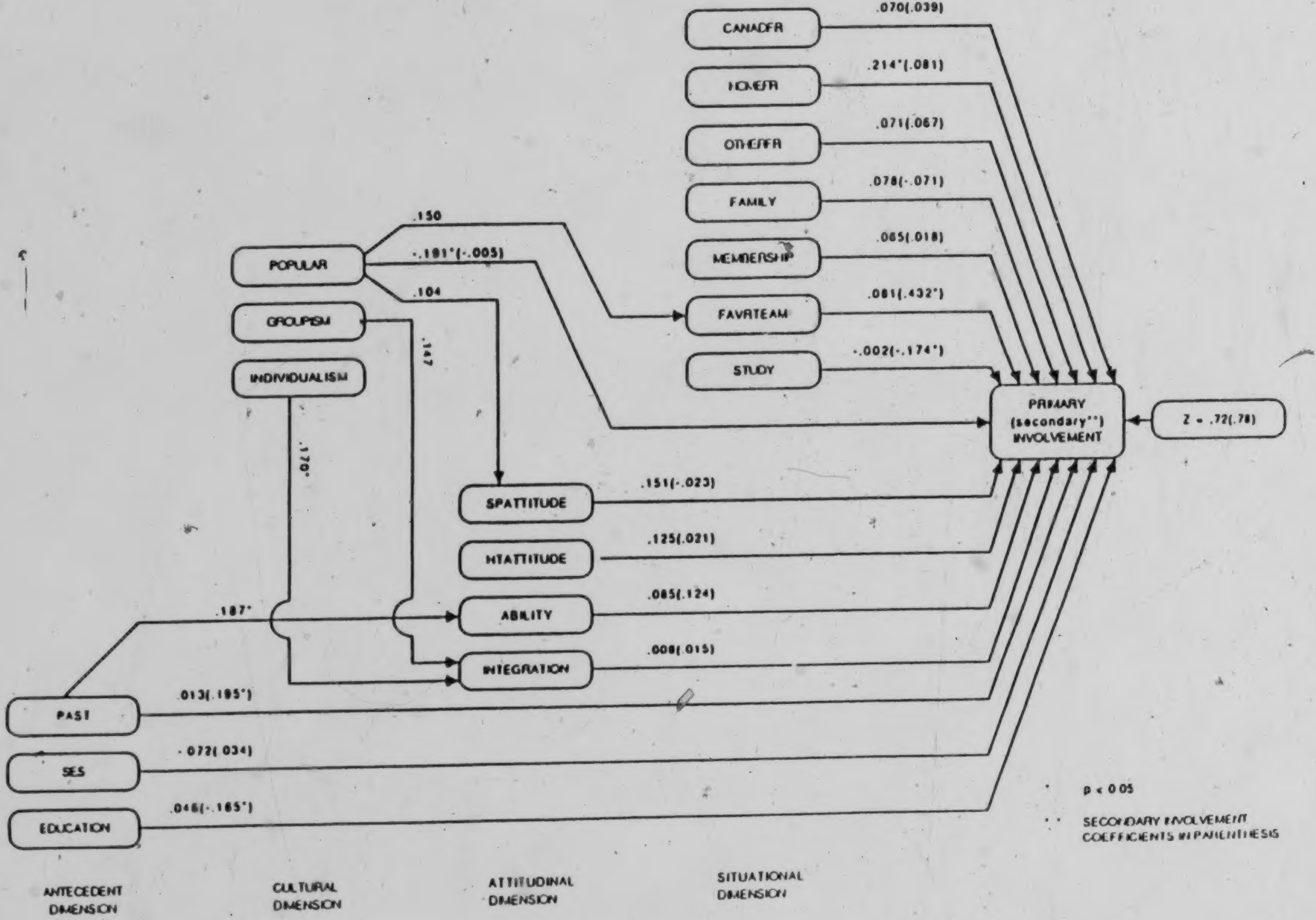
P<.05

Table 74
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Married Foreign Students

	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Past	.013 (.195)	.140 (.119)	.153 (.314)
SES	-.072 (.034)	-.023 (-.046)	-.095 (-.012)
Education	.046 (-.165)	-.018 (.002)	.028 (-.163)
Popular	-.191 (-.005)	.126 (.092)	-.065 (.087)
Groupism	---- -----	-.200 (-.094)	-.200 (-.097)
Individualism	---- -----	-.103 (-.070)	-.103 (-.070)
Spattitude	.151 (-.023)	.172 (.176)	.323 (.153)
Atattitude	.125 (.021)	.102 (.161)	.227 (.182)
Ability	.085 (.124)	.145 (.127)	.230 (.251)
Integration	.008 (.015)	-.004 (.066)	.004 (.081)
CanadFr	.070 (.039)	.231 (.100)	.301 (.139)
HomeFr	.214 (.081)	.115 (.081)	.329 (.162)
OtherFr	.071 (.067)	.209 (.082)	.280 (.149)
Family	.078 (-.071)	.216 (.198)	.294 (.127)
Membership	.065 (.018)	.129 (.105)	.194 (.123)
Favreteam	.081 (.432)	.068 (.073)	.149 (.505)
Study	-.002 (-.174)	-.058 (.011)	-.060 (-.163)

Figure 10 presents the process of socialization into sport for married students in the sample. First, with respect to the antecedent dimension, SES and parents' education had no significant effect on primary and secondary sport involvement with one exception; parents' education negatively influenced secondary sport involvement. These findings suggest that the higher the parents' education, the lower the propensity for secondary sport involvement. Although these results are opposite to the predicted direction, they are consistent with those for the graduate cohort. Further, past experience exerted a direct and significant effect on secondary sport involvement, while

FIGURE 10: PATH-ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT FOR MARRIED STUDENTS


CANADFR
.070(.039)
HOMEFR
.214*(.081)
OTHERFR
.071(.067)
FAMILY
.078(-.071)
MEMBERSHIP
.065(.018)
FAVRTEAM
.081(.432*)
STUDY
-.002(-.174*)
POPULAR
.150
-.181*(-.005)
.104
GROUPISM
.147
INDIVIDUALISM
.170*
PRIMARY (secondary**) INVOLVEMENT
Z = .72(.78)
SPATTITUDE
.151(-.023)
HTATTITUDE
.125(.021)
ABILITY
.085(.124)
INTEGRATION
.008(.015)
.187*
PAST
.013(.185*)
SES
-.072(.034)
EDUCATION
.046(-.165*)
* p < 0.05
** SECONDARY INVOLVEMENT COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESIS
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
CULTURAL DIMENSION
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION

indirectly it had an effect on primary sport involvement through perceived athletic ability.

Second, the cultural dimension (popular) had a significant negative effect on primary sport involvement but no effect on secondary sport involvement. These results may suggest an important trend for primary sport involvement, namely that married students from countries where sport was not very popular increased their sport involvement in Canada. In addition, individualism had a significant effect on the attitude toward social integration. That is, those who scored high on individualism had a positive attitude toward social integration. These findings are consistent with the analysis in the previous section.

Third, in contrast to the other path analysis, the attitudinal dimension had no significant effect on primary or secondary sport involvement. Finally, some differences in primary and secondary sport involvement were seen in the results for the situational dimension. For primary involvement, the influence of a home country peer group was the only significant predictor, while for secondary involvement, having a favorite sport team and time spent studying were the important determinants.

G. Path Analysis for the Hypothesized Process of Socialization into Sport for Single Foreign Students

Tables 75 and 76 provide the zero-order correlations and the direct and indirect effects of independent on dependent variables for single students.

Table 75
Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Single Students

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	
	Primary	Secondary
Past	.169*	.429*
SES	-.028	-.169*
Education	.100*	.017
Popular	.042	.216*
Spattitude	.467*	.119*
Atattitude	.344*	.041*
Ability	.408*	.205*
Integration	.129*	.128*
CanadFr	.219*	.052
HomeFr	.234*	.195*
OtherFr	.232*	.132*
Family	.000	.000
Membership	.204*	.158*
Favreteam	.169*	.451*
Study	-.007	.011*

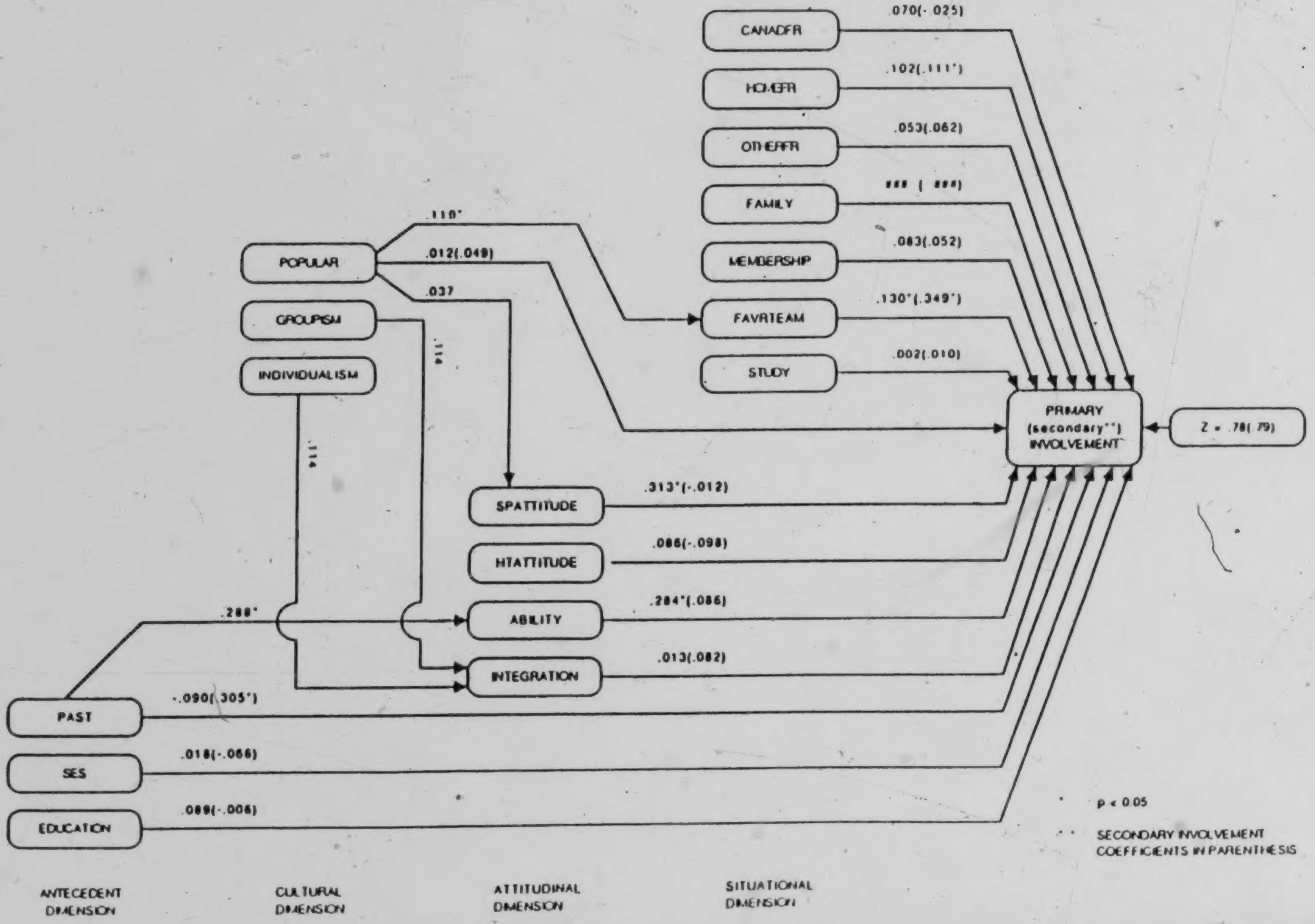
P<.05

Table 76
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Single Students

	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Past	-.090 (.305)	.259 (.124)	.169 (.429)
SES	.018 (-.066)	-.046 (-.103)	-.028 (-.169)
Education	.089 (-.006)	.011 (.023)	.100 (.017)
Popular	.012 (.049)	.030 (.167)	.042 (.216)
Groupism	---- -----	-.039 (-.082)	-.039 (-.082)
Individualism	---- -----	.003 (-.126)	.003 (-.126)
Spattitude	.313 (-.012)	.154 (.131)	.467 (.119)
Atattitude	.086 (-.098)	.258 (.139)	.344 (.041)
Ability	.284 (.086)	.124 (.119)	.408 (.205)
Integration	.013 (.082)	.116 (.046)	.129 (.128)
CanadFr	.070 (-.025)	.149 (.077)	.219 (.052)
HomeFr	.102 (.111)	.132 (.084)	.234 (.195)
OtherFr	.053 (.062)	.179 (.070)	.232 (.132)
Family	---- ------	---- ------	---- ------
Membership	.083 (.052)	.121 (.106)	.204 (.158)
Favreteam	.130 (.349)	.039 (.102)	.169 (.451)
Study	.002 (.010)	-.009 (.001)	-.007 (.011)

As indicated in Figure 11, there are several differences in the process of sport socialization between single and married students. First, the relationship between the independent and intervening variables should be discussed. For both single and married students, perceived athletic ability was influenced by past experiences, as predicted. The results, however, were somewhat stronger for single than for married students. Further, for singles, the popularity of sport in each country had a significant effect on whether they had a favorite sport team, but the same was

FIGURE 11: PATH-ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT FOR SINGLE STUDENTS


CANADFR
.070(-.025)
HOMEFR
.102(.111*)
OTHERFR
.053(.062)
FAMILY
### (###)
MEMBERSHIP
.083(.052)
FAVRTEAM
.130*(.349*)
STUDY
.002(.010)
POPULAR
.110*
.012(.049)
.037
GROUPISM
.114
INDIVIDUALISM
.114
PRIMARY (secondary**) INVOLVEMENT*
Z = .78(.79)
SPATTITUDE
.313*(-.012)
HTATTITUDE
.086(-.098)
ABILITY
.284*(.086)
INTEGRATION
.013(.082)
PAST
.288*
-.090(.305*)
SES
.018(-.066)
EDUCATION
.089(-.006)
* p < 0.05
** SECONDARY INVOLVEMENT COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESIS
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
CULTURAL DIMENSION
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION

not true for married students. Finally, neither the groupism nor the individualism dimension exerted a significant effect on either type of sport involvement of the single segment of the sample.

Second, the effect of past experience on secondary sport involvement was the only significant and direct effect in the antecedent dimension. For married students, however, low parental education was another important predictor.

Third, with respect to the attitudinal dimension, attitude toward sport and perceived athletic ability significantly influenced single students' primary involvement. As noted earlier, the attitudinal dimension was not influential for married students.

Fourth, the cultural dimension had no significant effect on primary and secondary sport involvement for unmarried students. Finally, the situational dimension revealed more differences between married and single students. A home country peer group showed a significant effect on single students' secondary sport involvement. In addition, having a favorite sport team was a strong predictor for primary and secondary involvement for the single students.

H. Path Analysis for the Process of Socialization into Sport for Chinese Students

In this section, the path model was examined for the Chinese students. The Chinese students were chosen for the analysis because of their relatively large number of respondents (62 students). The analysis was not conducted on students from other countries because of the insufficient number of respondents. It should be emphasized that the results of the path analysis for Chinese students should be taken with caution, since this sample was not large enough to obtain significant results. Tables 77 and 78 present the zero-order correlations and the direct and indirect effect of independent on dependent variables for Chinese students.

Table 77
Summary of Zero-Order Correlations for Chinese Students

Independent Variables	**Dependent Variables**	
	Primary	**Secondary**
Past	-.016	.185
SES	.079	.075
Education	.190	-.067
Popular	.106	.086
Spattitude	.246*	.041
Atattitude	.335*	.353*
Ability	.366*	.425*
Integration	-.094	.363*
CanadFr	.319*	-.001
HomeFr	.290*	.163
OtherFr	.334*	.122
Family	.270*	.199
Membership	.143	.153
Favreteam	.177	.454*
Study	-.037	-.102

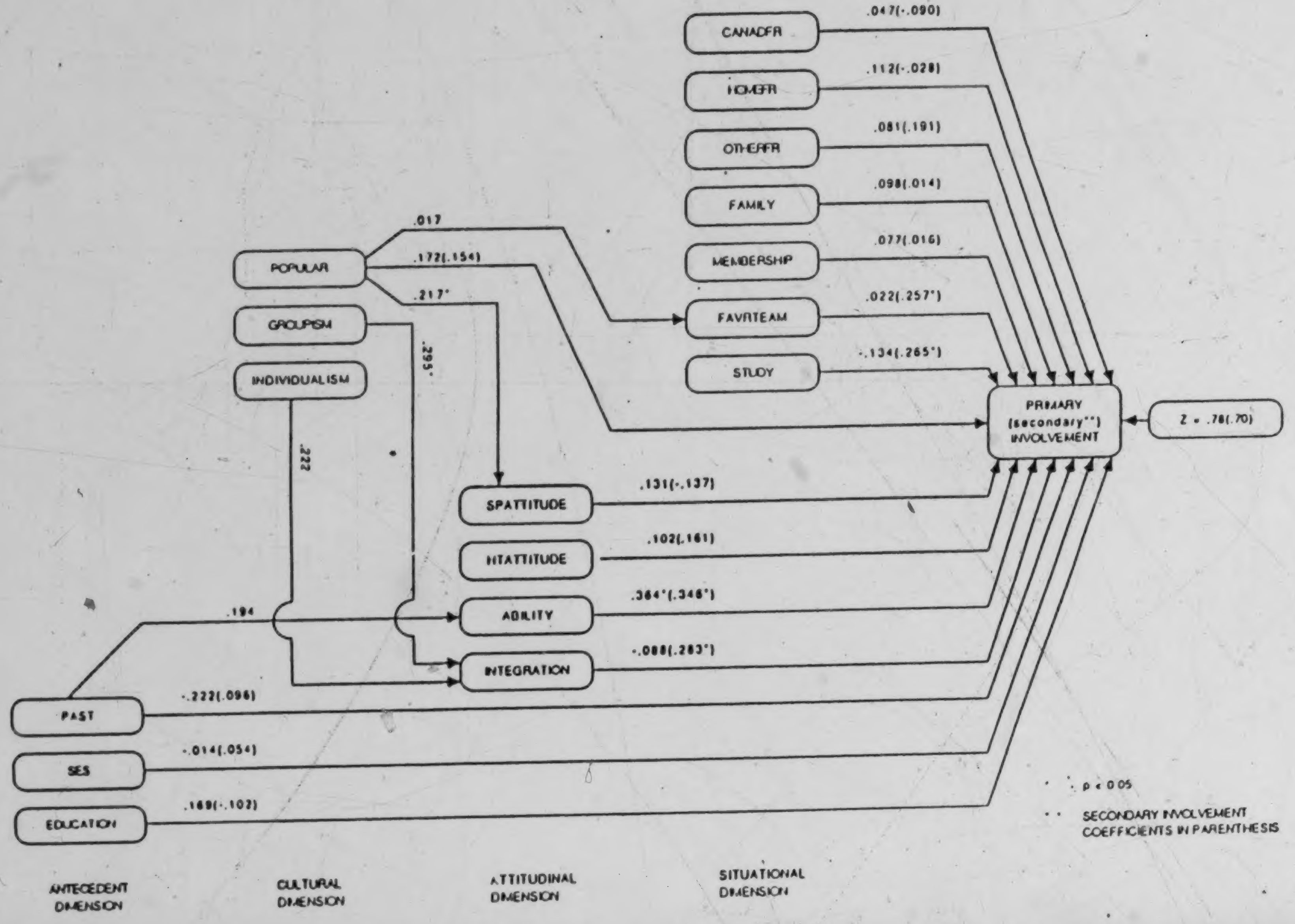
P<.05

Table 78
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent on Dependent Variables for Chinese Students

	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Past	-.222 (.096)	.206 (.089)	-.016 (.185)
SES	.014 (.054)	.093 (.021)	.079 (.075)
Education	.169 (-.102)	.021 (.035)	.190 (-.067)
Popular	.172 (.154)	-.066 (-.068)	.106 (.086)
Groupism	---- -----	-.113 (-.002)	-.113 (-.002)
Individualism	---- -----	.045 (-.221)	.045 (-.221)
Spattitude	.131 (-.137)	.115 (.178)	.246 (.041)
Atattitude	.102 (.161)	.233 (.192)	.335 (.353)
Ability	.364 (.346)	.002 (.079)	.366 (.425)
Integration	-.088 (.283)	-.006 (.080)	-.094 (.363)
CanadFr	.047 (-.090)	.272 (.089)	.319 (-.001)
HomeFr	.112 (-.028)	.178 (.191)	.290 (.163)
OtherFr	.081 (.191)	.253 (-.069)	.334 (.122)
Family	.098 (.014)	.172 (.185)	.270 (.199)
Membership	.077 (.016)	.066 (.137)	.143 (.153)
Favreteam	.022 (.251)	.155 (.197)	.177 (.454)
Study	-.134 (-.265)	.097 (.163)	-.037 (-.102)

As illustrated in Figure 12, it is apparent that the Chinese student's primary involvement was influenced more by perceived athletic ability than by any other variable. Furthermore, perceived ability, attitude toward social integration, having a favorite sport team and time spent studying had a significant effect on secondary sport involvement. Interestingly, the antecedent dimension had no significant effect on sport involvement either directly or indirectly. It should be noted, however, that past experience exerted a relatively strong negative effect,

FIGURE 12: PATH-ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF SOCIALIZATION INTO SPORT FOR CHINESE STUDENTS


CANADFR
.047(-.090)
HOMEFR
.112(-.028)
OTHERFR
.081(.191)
FAMILY
.098(.014)
MEMBERSHIP
.077(.016)
FAVRTEAM
.022(.257*)
STUDY
-.134(.265*)
POPULAR
.017
.172(.154)
.217*
GROUPISM
.295*
INDIVIDUALISM
.222
PRIMARY (secondary**) INVOLVEMENT
Z = .78(.70)
SPATTITUDE
.131(-.137)
HTATTITUDE
.102(.161)
ABILITY
.364*(.346*)
INTEGRATION
-.088(.283*)
.194
PAST
-.222(.096)
SES
-.014(.054)
EDUCATION
.169(-.102)
* p < 0.05
** SECONDARY INVOLVEMENT COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESIS
ANTECEDENT DIMENSION
CULTURAL DIMENSION
ATTITUDINAL DIMENSION
SITUATIONAL DIMENSION

although not statistically significant, on primary sport involvement (-.222). These findings reveal an important trend in that Chinese students who had little past sport experience during adolescence became more involved in sport in Canada and vice versa.

Significant positive effects of the popular and groupism dimensions on intervening variables were observed in the cultural dimension. This finding indicates that the popularity of sport in China was an important factor in determining a person's attitude toward sport. Also, in contrast to what was predicted, group orientation was a significant determinant of a Chinese respondent's attitude toward social integration. The situational dimension contributed significantly to the explanation for variance in secondary sport involvement, but not for primary sport involvement. Having a favorite sport team, and time spent studying, both were important predictor variables for secondary sport involvement. It is noteworthy that the path model explained a substantial amount of the variance in secondary sport involvement (R square equals .51).

I. Summary

Primary involvement was strongly influenced by the attitudinal dimension, while secondary sport involvement was influenced more by the antecedent and situational dimensions. Specifically, attitude toward sport and perceived athletic ability were the most important factors in explaining primary sport involvement, while past experience, parents' education, the influence of a home-country friend and having a favorite sport team exerted significant effects on secondary sport involvement. Also, past experience and the popularity of sport in each country had significant and indirect effects on primary sport involvement (see Tables 79 and 80).

As observed throughout this section, the data indicated sex differences, along with differential involvement patterns between graduate and undergraduate, and between married and single students. The most distinctive difference between males and females was the relationship between attitude toward personal health and primary involvement. While there was a weak positive effect of health attitude on primary involvement among the male cohort (ß=.050), a significant positive effect was found among the female cohort (ß=.203). These findings were consistent with those in the previous section. Furthermore, sex differences were seen in the relationship between the situational dimension and involvement in primary and secondary sport involvement. For the female cohort, the situational dimension had no effect on primary and secondary sport involvement except for having a favorite sport team. However, for the males, sport participation was strongly influenced by home country friend, membership in a sports club, and having a favorite sport team.

Table 79
Summary of Path Analysis for Primary Sport Involvement
(Significant* Coefficients only)

IV	Foreign Students	Males	Females	Under-Graduates	Graduate Students	Married Students	Single Students	Chinese Students
Direct								
PAST								
Indirect	.250	.193	.278	.377	.186	.187	.288	
SES								
EDUCATION		.130		.151				
Direct								
POPULAR								
Indirect	.126	.150	.130		.120		.119	.217
GROUPISM	.147				.199			.295
INDIVID-UALISM	.122					.170		
SP-ATTITUDE	.232	.183	.351	.359	.166		.313	
HT-ATTITUDE	.098		.203					
ABILITY	.202	.282		.219	.203		.284	.364
INTE-GRATION								
CANADFR								
HOMEFR	.162	.196			.185	.214		
OTHERFR								
FAMILY								
MEMBER-SHIP	.095	.113						
FAVRTEAM	.097	.108			.115		.130	
STUDY								

*P≤.05

Table 80
Summary of Path Analysis for Secondary Sport Involvement (Significant* Coefficients only)

IV	Foreign Students	Males	Females	Under-Graduates	Graduate Students	Married Students	Single Students	Chinese Students
PAST	.269	.185	.270		.337	.195	.305	
SES								
EDUCATION		-.141			-.128	-.165		
POPULAR		.110						
SP-ATTITUDE								
HT-ATTITUDE								
ABILITY	.230				.119			.346
INTEGRATION	.092				.139			.283
CANADFR								
HOMEFR	.114	.142			.113		.111	
OTHERFR								
FAMILY								
MEMBERSHIP								
FAVRTEAM	.369	.342	.412	.427	.340	.432	.349	.257
STUDY						-.174		.265

*P≤.05

With regard to degree program differences, it was observed that graduate students' sport participation was dependent on more factors than was undergraduates' participation. That is, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions had a significant effect on the primary and secondary sport involvement of graduate students, while for undergraduates, the attitudinal dimension was the most influential.

Finally, differences were found between married and single students. Among the married cohort the popularity of sport at home and the influence of a home-country friend were important predictors for primary sport involvement, whereas attitude toward sport, perceived athletic ability, and having a favorite sport team had a significant effect on single students' primary sport involvement.

It should be noted that owing to the small number of respondents from each country, it was impossible to conduct a separate analysis for each different country. Thus, only China, which had a relatively large number of respondents, was chosen to take part in the analysis. The analysis was not conducted on Hong Kong students, since these students made up a high percentage of the undergraduate population.

CHAPTER VI

Discussion

This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section discusses the descriptive statistics. The next section examines the theoretical implications and significance of the bivariate analysis, while the final section explains the results of the multivariate analysis.

A. Discussion of Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for the dependent and some of the independent variables were presented in the results section together with findings related to foreign students' sport participation. Generally, the results indicated cross-national differences in the degree of primary and secondary sport involvement. However, significant differences were found only between American students and students from Hong Kong -- American students were more active than students from all other countries, but especially more so than the Hong Kong students. These findings probably reflect the pervasiveness of sport in American society. Millions of Americans show a lively interest in sport as it is a staple of their conversation, reading and viewing fare (Eitzen and Sage, 1986). Being one of the most modern societies in the world, most middle and upper class Americans basic needs (e.g., food, shelter) are provided in this country. Once the American's basic needs have been secured, they can turn to satisfy higher-order needs such as physical fitness activities. Another possible explanation for these findings is that the American students were accustomed to most of the sports commonly played in Canada. Thus, it was easier for them to become involved in Canadian sport than for students from other continents, who may have been unfamiliar with some of the Canadian sports.

Four explanations could be offered for the finding that students from Hong Kong were not active in sport: (1) It is possible that sport was not popular and sport facilities were not available for these students when they lived in Hong Kong. Perhaps students from this country had not been socialized into sport participation during their youth. Consequently, they were not active in sport later in their lives. (2) According to the International Students Office, students from Hong Kong tended to receive financial support from their families; as a result they may have felt pressure to study hard, graduate on time and return quickly to their home country. This being the case, they may have concentrated on their studies and not been concerned with sports participation. (3) Since many of the Hong Kong students are undergraduates, they do not have assistantships at the University. They are also not allowed to work outside the University. Consequently, they may not be engaged in sport activities that require the purchase of expensive equipment or attend sport events (Allan, 1989).

(4) It is possible that the Hong Kong students were not interested in sport. They may be attracted to other leisure activities such as video-games or gambling.

Significant differences were found between Chinese students and those from other countries with respect to their orientations toward sport. The Chinese students expressed less interest in "playing fairly." These results were somewhat puzzling since, ostensibly a major value in Chinese society is friendship and cooperation: "Friendship first, competition second" (Galiher and Hessler, 1979). A possible explanation for this unexpected finding may be the way Chinese students respond to questionnaires in general. It has been stated that the Chinese tend to concentrate at the mid-point of the measurement scale rather than at the extremes. (Solomon 1970, Pye 1984). Also, it is possible that because Chinese students represent the intellectual elite, their emphasis on values such as friendship and cooperation may not be representative of the larger society. Finally, recent events in China indicate that Chinese society is changing (e.g., Tiananmen square event). Perhaps it was an error in judgment to assume that friendship and cooperation are still key values int he Chinese ideology.

Next, although sport opportunities for females have increased dramatically in recent years, male students were found to be more actively involved in sport than females. This may be the result of students' past involvement in sport, as social learning theory and related empirical research have established that involvement in sport during adulthood is greatly influenced by whether sport became part of one's life style during childhood (McPherson 1978b, Bandura 1969). Indeed, this study found that male students were more involved in primary and secondary sport during their youth, and derived more satisfaction and pleasure from their sport involvement, than did the female students.

The differences between males' and females' past sport involvement can be partially attributed to sex discrimination. In western societies, as well as in many other cultures, the world of sport has been the exclusive domain of males. For many years men have engaged in sport more often than women and have manifested greater interest in sport activities.

Women have faced various constraints which have hindered their sport involvement (Eitzen and Sage, 1986). In North America, for example, females have had fewer opportunities to engage in sport, as the number of sport activities as well as sport facilities and equipment available to women were only a fraction of those available to males (Coakley, 1986). Moreover, myths and beliefs about the consequences of sport participation and the physical and psychological abilities of girls and women have served to limit females' involvement in sport.

Considerable evidence shows that the socialization process in regard to sport varies considerably according to gender (Coakley, 1986). There has not been a close relationship between athleticism and feminity in many cultures. For example, Southern European parents were found to limit their daughters' participation in swimming, camping trips or school excursions, fearing social and sexual impropriety (Lenskyj, 1988). In some cultures religious beliefs require that females wear restrictive clothing that makes any form of physical activity impractical (Dixey, 1982). Thus, it is likely that female students in this study were less actively involved in sport, both during their childhood and adulthood, because of gender inequality and differences in how they were socialized.

Sex differences were also found in attitudes towards personal health and physical activity. Male foreign students expressed greater interest in participating in physical activities than female students did. Females, however, showed a greater interest in their nutritional practices and body weight than did male respondents. Interestingly, it was found in this study that females from other cultures were not different from North American females with regard to their attitudes toward body weight and nutrition. It would be interesting to discover whether these foreign female students acquired these attitudes in Canada, or learned them in their own country.

These results might have been the consequence of the health movement that started in the mid-1970s (Coakley, 1986). An increased health awareness has encouraged women to watch their weight and reduce their dietary intake. It is also highly probable that the traditional feminine ideal of being attractive to males and preserving their youthful looks still exists. It is common for females to give a high priority to the presentation of their bodies, trying to imitate the models seen on the pages of a fashion magazine. These findings are consistent with Sidney and Shephard's (1976) study, which suggested that men were attracted to sport by a desire to get fit, while women sought to control weight and improve their figure via sport involvement.

Next, it was assumed for this study that graduate students would be less involved in sport than would undergraduates. Surprisingly, the findings indicated that graduate students had a more active primary and secondary sport involvement. This may be because of the high proportion of Hong Kong students in the undergraduate sample (eighty-two out of 135 undergraduate students were from Hong Kong [60.7%]). The Hong Kong students were the least active in sport of all the students, so the results may well reflect the country of origin rather than the degree program.

Alternative explanations that may have merit are that: (1) Undergraduate students have fewer opportunities and resources to engage in sport activities. Currently, the undergraduate cohort is dominated by students from Hong Kong, most of whom do not have any grants or fellowships. Because they are financed by their parents, they may not enjoy the financial means needed to indulge in sport (personal communication with Wilfred Allan, 1989). (2) Undergraduate students do not appear to use sport as a tool to acculturate themselves into Canadian society ~~to the~~ extent that graduate students do. One reason may be that being new to the academic environment, foreign undergraduate students they have to invest more time to adjust to conditions that graduate students are already familiar with. Another possibility is that most undergraduate students do not plan to stay in Canada and thus are not overly concerned with being acculturated in general, let alone through their sport involvement.

The descriptive statistics used in this study helped to complete an athletic involvement profile of "typical" international students at the University of Alberta. The most popular sport for males and females was swimming, which may be due to the fact that two pools are available for students on campus, and that students were familiar with swimming, having been introduced to it in their home countries. Another factor could be that it is an activity that provides a total body workout, yet does not require the purchase of expensive equipment.

Forty-three percent of the students reported having a favorite sport team or athlete. This figure is likely much lower than it would have been had the question been administered to a North American sample of university students. One likely explanation for the relatively low response rate in this area is: students may have perceived the admiration of athletes or sports teams as a rather shallow or trivial diversion when compared to their academic interests, or they may have had favorite teams and athletes. but were unwilling to admit it, even in an anonymous survey. Two respondents did comment that they thought admiring a sport team or athlete was childish.

Most of the 43 percent who reported having a favorite sport team or athlete chose the "Edmonton Oilers" and Wayne Gretzky as the objects of their admiration. These results are not too surprising given the extent of the media coverage regarding Gretzky and the Oilers at the time, and considering the questionnaire was sent out in the middle of the hockey season. These findings do indicate the role sport may play in adult socialization. Following the local team and athletic hero may have helped the acculturation process for some foreign students. Through their interest in sport they may have acquired some of the cultural traditions, patterns of life and values of a society different from their own. Like many other Edmontonians, students became interested in the local heroes, thereby linking them to the Canadian culture. This interest in sport may have led them to interact with Canadians thus helping to create a sense of social solidarity (Stone, 1969).

Finally, students were asked in open-ended questions to describe any positive and negative aspects of their sport participation. Most respondents indicated that sport involvement contributed to their personal health and improved their fitness. Other frequently-mentioned benefits were fun, tension release, meeting new friends and helping in the socialization process. Very few students provided more than one negative comment, with most of the students not listing any negative result to their sport involvement. Students tended to perceive sport as a positive influence in their lives. They indicated that sport involvement could mitigate feelings of loneliness and help ease their adjustment to a new environment. These results further support the contention that sport can play an important role in the acculturation process.

B. Discussion of the Bivariate Analysis

The previous chapters examined relationships between the two dependent variables and each of the independent variables using a bivariable regression. In this section, the theoretical implications and significance of these findings are discussed.

Results pertaining to the impact of past involvement in sport on primary and secondary sport involvement were quite straightforward: past involvement was related significantly and positively to primary and secondary sport involvement. Atchley (1977) maintains that behaviors, attitudes and values acquired at one stage in the life-cycle predispose an individual to similar patterns at later stages. Bandura (1969) states that in accord with social learning theory, the acquisition of any behavior can be understood by looking at antecedent stimulus conditions and then at their consequences. The present findings support these theories. In addition, these results are consistent with many studies that have demonstrated the continuity between past experience and present involvement in sport (e.g., McPherson and Kenyon, 1978; Spreitzer and Snyder, 1976).

Over the past decade, several studies have pointed out that a higher social status is positively associated with primary sport involvement (e.g., Milton, 1976; Spreitzer and Snyder, 1983). A number of possible explanations are presented here as to why the findings in this study were inconsistent with that previous research: First, it is possible that the measures of S.E.S. used in the study were invalid. It is difficult to know how accurately the current S.E.S. scale actually measured respondents' socio-economic status. It is possible that in some foreign countries, occupation, income and education do not belong in the same content domain as they do in North America. It is also possible that these indices are not a proper reflection of social standing in other cultures. Adding to the problem of measuring this variable was the fact that parents' education was assessed on an "objective" scale, while income and occupation were measured on "subjective" scales. In the latter instance respondents may have tended to rank their fathers' occupation and income higher than it really was.

The reader should keep in mind that in this study, S.E.S. measured the socio-economic status of respondents' parents rather than the S.E.S. of the respondents themselves. This may explain the seeming contradiction between the current findings and the general North American finding that S.E.S. is positively related to sport involvement. In the relevant North American studies, S.E.S. measured the effect of a subject's socio-economic status on the same subject's sport involvement. In fact, a Chinese student indicated that the study should have measured students own social status. He commented that "if your parents are simple, down to earth people such as farmers or blue-collar workers, you still can be a leader of the world."

Finally, the S.E.S. measurement prompted several comments. Some typical comments are described below:

- "I don't like the S.E.S. measurement. It doesn't matter if my father's occupation is not prestigious. I have to respect him and say that it is prestigious."
- "You should also ask about mother's occupation. It is a sexist question."
- "You should look at the social class backgrounds of the international students themselves."

Since this study deals with foreign students, it has been assumed that the degree to which these students are socialized into sport roles is dependent to some extent on the importance of sport involvement in their homeland. Further, it has been predicted that the higher the level of acceptance of female sport participation in a foreign society, the greater the likelihood of female sport involvement in Canada.

Generally, these propositions were rejected with one exception, that is, that the popularity of sport in a society was significantly and positively related to secondary sport involvement. This may have been a corollary of the fact that two different countries were involved in this analysis. Students were asked about the popularity and acceptance of female sport participation in their homeland, while their own primary and secondary sport involvement took place in the new country, Canada. It is possible that additional factors related to their new surroundings, such as time spent studying and unfamiliarity with Canadian sports, influenced female students' sport participation in Canada.

In fact, several students explained why they were not involved in sport in Canada. Some of the most popular comments were:

- "I am not good at handling schoolwork and extracurricular activities."
- "I participated in sport everyday in my home country. The work involved in my research hardly permits me to do so in Canada."

- "The real problem for me is to find people willing to get involved in sport with me."
- "I went to the gym more than once to try to get involved in sport. I always get lost."

This last comment seems odd, but it points out a more general problem that foreign students face. Lacking confidence, foreign students hesitate to seek help when they need it and thus they prefer to stick to environments with which they are familiar.

Alternative explanations might be related to the concept "popular", which was used in the question. A number of students commented that the question was not clear to them. Typical comments were:

- "Popular to me or to other people in my country?"
- "Popular in comparison to Canadian society?"

Thus it seems that a more refined question would have elicited sharper responses.

No significant differences were found between countries relative to a possible "groupism" or "individualism" orientation. The absence of differences found may be a result of the questions' not being able to pick up nuances in cultural values. It is likely that these value differences do exist, but a more refined form of measurement is needed to bring them out. Another possibility is to control the length of time that students spent in Canada. It is likely that students who have been in Canada for more than a year, acculturated to Canadian society to a greater extent than those who have just arrived. Being acculturated to Canadian culture, they lost some of their traditional values.

To a certain extent, cultural differences were revealed in that Chinese respondents tended to participate in sport with fellow compatriots and not with Canadians or friends from other countries. In contrast, American students tended to get involved in sport with non-Americans. Indeed the literature suggests that in China a group orientation is emphasized, while in the U.S.A. the emphasis is on an individual orientation (e.g., Snyder and Spreitzer, 1983; Shibutani, 1955). Thus, it is possible that the Chinese who grew up with the notion of "groupism" interact more with their own people, thereby socializing less with Canadians and insulating themselves from Canadian culture. In the same vein, American students, who were socialized on the idea of "individualism" did not have a predominant tendency to interact with their fellow Americans.

Theoretically, foreigners who grew up with the notion of groupism may face greater difficulties with acculturation into the host society, while foreigners who grew up in a more individualistic society may find the acculturation process easier. However, the former example includes radically different groups. Obviously students from China are different from American students in aspects other than the groupism/individualism notion. The Chinese are a readily identifiable ethnic group that speaks a different language from what Canadians speak. In contrast, it would be hard to distinguish an American student from a Canadian unless they had a strong regional accent. Even then it is likely that American students see themselves as being similar to Canadians so they do not feel the need to seek out other Americans for companionship.

Two highly significant findings of this study were, first, that respondents' involvement in sport was positively related to their attitude toward sport and to their concern with their health, and second, that perceived athletic ability positively affected sport involvement. These findings concur with other empirical studies (Kenyon, 1968, 1970; Eitzen and Sage, 1982; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976, 1978 and Yamaguchi, 1984) which together support the Smith et al. (1980) and Mead (1934) theories. According to these scholars if one is to understand and predict human behavior, one should study relevant attitudes. This implies that if a researcher wanted to understand, predict or change an individual's sport involvement, the researcher should study and modify the individual's attitudes.

It was thought that foreign students having a positive attitude toward social integration might try to establish a network of social ties in the receiving community. One way to do so would be for the student to become involved in primary and secondary sports with Canadian individuals. The results of this study support this prediction, in that it was found that the greater the desire of individuals to be socially integrated, the greater was their primary and secondary sport involvement. Interestingly, when students who planned to return home after the completion of their degree were excluded from the analysis, the findings revealed even stronger associations between integration and sport involvement.

Sport, then, can be viewed as a way of integrating ethnic groups if it is their desire to be integrated. However, it is obvious from the former Chinese-American comparison that not all ethnic groups are equally capable of using sport as a socialization agent. As mentioned before, for example, identifiable ethnic groups may face race stereotypes, which would decrease their socialization into the host society via sport activity (Candor, 1988). Additionally, it may be that not all societies are equally receptive to foreigners' socialization, even if the foreigners are willing to become part of that society.

The role of significant others has been studied extensively in socialization research. In the study of adult socialization the most frequently-mentioned significant others have been peer groups, spouses and teachers (Clausen, 1972).

In this study the peer group was found to be influential in socializing individuals into sport. The respondents answered two relevant questions that asked first, to what extent peer group members encouraged or discouraged respondents' sport participation and second, how often peer group members actually participated in sport. It was found that a peer groups' actual participation in sport, rather than the peer groups' encouragement to participate in sport, was a key predictor of respondents' sport involvement. These findings were in line with the social learning theory of Bandura and Walters (1969), who emphasized modeling and vicarious learning somewhat independent of external reinforcement. Bandura and Walters demonstrated experimentally that social behavior is learned by observing and internalizing the behavior of others without the observer receiving direct reinforcement, as in the traditional stimulus-response pattern of learning.

An unexpected negative association was found between family encouragement and a respondent's primary sport involvement. The original hypothesis predicting positive association between these two variables was based on previous research. However, while previous research studied mainly the effect of parents and siblings on one's sport involvement, this study investigated the effect of spouse on a respondent's sport involvement. This difference in the content of the independent variable (family's encouragement) may be at least partially responsible for the unexpected effect found here. It is possible, however, that the causality arrows in the model should reversed. That is, the less the respondents' involvement in sport, the greater the encouragement to participate they get from their spouses. Yamaguchi (1984) also did not find a significant association between spouse encouragement and sport involvement. It seems that further research in this area is warranted to settle these contradictory findings.

Sociologists have been interested in how working time affects a person's leisure behavior (Parker, 1971; Kelly, 1972; Deam, 1982; Gregory, 1982). For example, it has been suggested that since women remain the primary caretakers of children, the requirement that mothers be on-call day and night severely limits the amount of "free time" for leisure activities (Lenskyj, 1988). In this study there was no significant relationship between the time spent working and a person's sport involvement. In contrast, the amount of free time students had on weekends and the time students invested in studying influenced their sport involvement. This is no doubt a reflection of the fact that foreign students are not allowed to work outside the university. Furthermore, if they do have an assistantship at the University, their duties are not to exceed ten hours per week. Thus, the involvement they could fit into their leisure time was largely dependent on the time spent studying and the free time they had during the weekend.

Finally, based on the identification theory, which focuses on the strong affective relationship between a model and the identifier, it was assumed that an important factor in socializing immigrants could be the presence of a successful sport team in the community. Indeed, the results indicated that students who admired or identified with a sport team were more likely to be involved in primary and secondary sports than other students. Moreover, it was found that students who admired the "Edmonton Oilers" consumed sport to a greater extent than the other students.

However, these results should be viewed cautiously, as the relationship between team identification and sport consumption may be simultaneous rather than recurcive. Put differently, further research should test the possibility that sport identification and secondary involvement occur at the same time and enhance each other.

C. Discussion of the Multivariate Analysis

The previous chapter presented the results of the multivariate relations using a series of path analyses. The relationships between the antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions and primary and secondary sport involvement were presented separately for the whole sample and were broken down for sex, degree sought, marital status and country of origin. In this section, the theoretical implications and significance of the findings of the multivariate analysis are discussed.

1. The Antecedent Dimension

In comparison to the study of primary sport roles, relatively few studies have investigated socialization into secondary sport roles. Several studies have indicated that a person's sports aptitude, the influence of significant others in the family, and encouragement from the peer group were the most important determinants of secondary sport involvement (McPherson, 1981). The findings of this study illustrate the importance of past sport involvement on secondary sport involvement. These findings are consistent with Kenyon's (1970), thus providing further support to the continuity hypothesis.

The continuity hypothesis did not apply to these foreign students' primary sport involvement. Although the results of the bivariate regression indicated that past experience was significantly related to primary sport involvement, this did not hold in the multivariate analysis. The lack of a predicted association may indicate a situation in which formerly inactive foreign students became involved in sport in Canada, and those who were active in their home countries were inactive in Canada. The fact that past experience affected secondary but not primary sport involvement could be attributed to familiarity with Canadian sport. It is possible that someone with an interest in sports might not be able to get actively involved in Canadian sports, but would still be able to watch it.

An alternative explanation is that students who had been involved in sport before coming to Canada desocialize themselves from primary sport involvement because of a lack of time, financial resources, and the demands of adapting to a new society. Yet they used secondary sport as a link to the world of sport.

In addition to the behavioral dimension of sport involvement, the affective dimension was also found to influence sport participation (Harris, 1973). Indeed, in line with Yamaguchi's study, it was found here that sport involvement was influenced not only by past behavioral involvement but also by the pleasure experienced during past involvement.

Socio-economic status was measured by two variables: (1) family income and father's occupation (S.E.S.) and (2) parents' education (Education). Unexpectedly, no relationships were found between socio-economic status (S.E.S. and Education) and primary and secondary sport involvement. There were, however, several exceptions in the multivariate analyses. It was apparent that for males, graduate students, and for married students, the lower the parents' education the greater their secondary sport involvement. In addition, a positive association was found between education and primary involvement among the male and the undergraduate cohorts. These findings are difficult to interpret, and perhaps indicate a problem with the way S.E.S. was assessed in the study. It is quite likely that this concept is understood and interpreted differently by students from different cultures.

Finally, according to symbolic interaction theory, individuals start evaluating their athletic ability in early childhood. These self-perceptions of athletic ability ultimately influence their sport involvement in adulthood.

Indeed this was the case in this study as it was shown that respondents' past experience in sport influenced their perceived athletic ability and their sport involvement.

2. The Cultural Dimension

Overall in this study, the popularity of sport in each society was unrelated to a student's primary and secondary sport involvement in Canada. There were, however, some exceptions among male graduate students and married students. Significant negative associations existed between the popularity of sport in a society and the primary sport involvement for graduate and married students. In contrast, the popularity of sport in a society was positively and significantly related to secondary sport involvement among the male students.

These results suggest that married and graduate students who had come from countries where sport was not very popular, became more involved in primary sport in Canada, and vice-versa. On the one hand it is possible that those who reported that sport is highly popular in their country had previously had opportunities to get involved in sport and some of them had been actually engaged in sport. When they came to Canada, however, they were not actively involved in sport for a variety of reasons (e.g. academic demands, or helping their family to adjust to a new society). On the other hand, those who reported that sport was not popular in their country perhaps had not enjoyed opportunities to engage in sport even though they had wanted to do so. Upon coming to Canada, then they found enough opportunities to engage in sport and they took advantage of these new circumstances.

The findings that emerged concerning the impact of the individualism and groupism orientations on students' attitudes toward social integration were unforseen. First, no two countries were significantly different from one another relative to either groupism or individualism. Second, the multivariate analyses indicated that in several cohorts, groupism as well as individualism significantly and positively affected respondents' attitudes toward social integration. These findings were counter to the proposition that students scoring high on groupism would not have a strong orientation toward social integration.

The above results may reflect, however, the differences between attitudinal measurements and actual behavior. Specifically, respondents who scored high on groupism indicated a positive attitude toward social integration, whereas in practice they were involved in sport with their fellow country people rather than with Canadian individuals. A possible explanation for this discrepancy is that students' responses for these questions were biased because of social desirability. That is, students for some reason felt that there were right and wrong answers to the attitudinal questions and they chose what they believed was the right answer.

This study did not find significant differences between the values of groupism and individualism across the studied countries. Yet groupism and individualism are only two values among the many that constitute a dominant ideology. Thus, the question of the effect of social values on sport involvement may still warrant some research attention as other values may affect sport involvement. Future research may wish to examine cultural values such as socialism, democracy, use of leisure and recreation.

Finally, significant and positive relationships were found between the popularity of sport in each country and whether respondents had a sports team they admired. These results supported Smith's (1973) study which pointed out that in a society where sport is highly popular, children see older models attending sporting events, watching games on television, and reading and talking about sports. The results of this process are a realization of the significance of sport and an appreciation of elite sport teams and athletes.

3. The Attitudinal Dimension

The attitudinal dimension explains much of the variance in primary sport involvement in this study. Attitudes toward sport and health and perceived athletic ability were the most important factors in explaining primary sport involvement. This pattern was true for the whole sample, as well as for each cohort except married students. These results are consistent with the bivariate analysis and with several empirical studies which have stated that involvement in sport was greater when the perceived athletic ability and the attitude toward sport and personal health were positive (Kenyon 1970; Eitzen and Sage 1982). These results also indicate the utility of the symbolic interaction approach and Smith et al. (1980) in explaining primary sport involvement.

The attitudinal dimension was also influential on secondary sport involvement. Similar to the bivariate analysis, a positive association was observed between perceived athletic ability and attitude toward social integration and secondary sport involvement. In the multivariate analysis, however, when the influence of sex, degree, marital status and country were controlled, the findings indicated a significant positive association for graduate and Chinese students. It is important to reemphasize here that in comparison to the other dimensions, the attitudinal dimension explained much of the variance in primary sport involvement.

4. The Situational Dimension

Among the variables comprising the situational dimension, clearly the major predictors of primary and secondary involvement were the influence of a home country friend, having a favorite sport team, and membership in a sport club.

In general, having a favorite sport team had the strongest effect on secondary sport involvement. That is, significant and positive relations were found between favorite sport team and secondary sport involvement in all of the cohorts. In addition, a favorite sport team exerted a positive and significant effect on the primary sport involvement of male, graduate and single students. These results may reflect the fact that in Edmonton there was a very successful team, the "Oilers," that attracted considerable attention. Indeed 74% of the males and 73% of the females who reported having a favorite team indicated the "Oilers" as the team of their choice. These results should be viewed cautiously since the relationship between secondary sport involvement and team identification may be simultaneous rather than recursive.

Even though the exact causality between team identification and sport involvement is yet to be clarified, the finding that the existence of a favorite super athlete or team is realted to a greater involvement in primary and secondary sport should be further studied. Future research should look for comparisons in cities or universities which enjoy the presence of super athletes or teams. If indeed the current finding is corroborated, this will significantly enhance our understanding of the socialization into sport process.

Significant others such as Canadian friends, other country peer groups, instructors, and families had no significant influence on respondents' primary and secondary sport involvement. The main exception to this pattern was the finding that home-country peers were influential in determining respondents' sport involvement. There was a tendency among foreign students to engage in sport activities with students from their own country, rather than with students from other regions or with their own families.

Cultural barriers such as language, tradition, and religion might explain the fact that the foreign students tended to associate with a home country friend. However, several students gave other reasons:

- "It gives me a sense of security and identity."
- "A number of my friends are not Canadian and they do not try to fit into Canadian society. Instead, we just try to be ourselves."
- "For me sport is very important. I met lots of international students but no Canadians."
- "The real problem for me is to find Canadian people willing to engage in sort with me."

Finally, the opportunity set and the work situation did not explain much of the variance in primary and secondary sport involvement, especially when the influences of other dimensions were controlled. The findings, however, provided some evidence of the influence of opportunity set on primary involvement. Specifically, students with membership in sport clubs were more likely to be active in sport. This finding should be viewed with caution since only ten percent of the students were members in a sport club. Also the relationship between membership in a club and primary involvement could be simultaneous.

The literature on socialization into sport suggests that the socialization process varies by marital status, sex, and where the person was raised. It was also assumed in this study that certain differences may exist depending on the degree program the student is enrolled in. Hence, a series of path analyses were conducted separately for sex, marital status and degree program.

A. Sex

The literature suggested that there were unique sex differences in the socialization process (Hall, 1978; Greendorfer, 1978, 1982, 1983; Lenskyi, 1988; Lever, 1978). This occurs because of the differing expectations for females and males in most societies. In North America the process seems to work as follows; a male who has a high level of sport aptitude, who lives in a large community which has adequate facilities and instructors, and who receives encouragement from significant others both from within and outside of school, has a greater chance of being socialized into a primary sport role (McPherson, 1981). While the general model has relevance for females, the most pronounced differences in the process pertain to the influence of opportunity set and significant others. For example, Theberge (1977) in a study of 82 women professional golfers, found that 66 percent of the golfers became increasingly dependent with age on access to private golf club for playing privileges and lessons. Moreover, a number of studies in recent years have found that a high value climate which encourages sport involvement must be present in the family, often in the form of actual participation by both parents and overt encouragement for their daughter's involvement. While the family and peer group appeared to be the most influential significant others for women, regardless of sport there was a need for a greater number and variety of significant others for females as opposed to males, if they were to continue being involved in sport (Greendorfer, 1982, 1983).

The findings of the study being reported here did not reveal that significant others had any discernible impact on female sport involvement, although home country peer group did have a significant effect on male primary sport involvement. This may be one reason why female foreign students were less involved in sport than male foreign students. It should be noted, however, that this study investigated the relationships between significant others and sport involvement in Canada and not in the country of origin. It is thus possible that in the past, female foreign students had been encouraged to participate in sport by traditional significant others.

Further, sex differences were observed with regard to the effect of popularity of sport in a country of origin on sport involvement in Canada. The popularity of sport directly and indirectly (through the "favorite team" variable) affected male sport involvement. Moreover, sport popularity affected female sport team identification but it did not affect their primary sport involvement. It appears then, that students coming from a society where sport is highly popular are likely to engage in sport in Canada, but this is not the case for females. Males learned that sport was important and they tended to have a favorite sport team or athletes. This in turn affected their primary and secondary sport involvement. Females, however, may perceive sport as popular in their country and may even have a favorite sport team, but at the same time they may receive negative sanctions from significant others for their own sport participation. Consequently, they will not be involved in sport to the extent that males are.

Finally, attitudes toward sport and personal health also influenced female sport involvement. For males, however, attitudes toward personal health did not affect sport participation. These findings were probably best explained by Sidney and Shephard (1976) who pointed out that men were attracted to sport by a desire to get fit, while women sought to increase their health, control their weight and improve their figure through sport participation.

B. Degree

Although not investigated before, it was assumed for this study that there would be significant differences between graduate and undergraduate students in how they were socialized into sport. One major difference revealed by the findings was that the attitude of graduate students toward social integration had a bearing on their secondary sport involvement. That is, if graduate students were positive toward social integration they were likely to have a strong secondary sport involvement. In contrast, no relationship was found between a positive attitude toward social integration and the sport involvement of undergraduate students. One reason for this difference may relate to the future plans of graduate and undergraduate students. Many of the undergraduate students said they planned to finish their degree and return home. Many graduate students said they hoped to find a job or to continue their studies in North America upon graduation. Consequently, the graduate students made more effort to acculturate into Canadian society through secondary sport involvement.

It was also assumed that time spent studying would be an important factor in explaining the differences between graduate and undergraduate students' sport socialization. It was expected that graduate students would devote more time and energy to their academic work and therefore be less active in sport in comparison to undergraduates. This was not the case, as the descriptive analysis revealed that graduate students were actually more involved in both primary and secondary sport than undergraduates. The multivariate analysis showed that the amount of time respondents spent studying did not significantly affect involvement for either graduate or undergraduate students. Apparently, other factors were responsible for the differences between these cohorts.

As this is the first attempt to compare graduate and undergraduate students, the author can only speculate on the differences in the determinants of their sport involvement. It seems, however, that four additional factors influenced the results. First, graduate students enjoyed an advantage regarding their adaptation to the new academic environment, which may have enabled them to be more involved in sport. While undergraduate students must adapt to both a new society and the academic environment, graduate students have already been a part of a university and therefore are relieved of the pressure that this part of the adaptation process involves.

Second, undergraduate students were younger than graduate students in this study. "Age" is a social variable which can greatly influence the process of socialization. There are age-related norms which are unique to particular cultures or subcultures and which determine appropriate or inappropriate behavior at particular points in the life cycle. However, because the undergraduate and graduate cohorts were analyzed separately from each other, age could not be used to explain differences in sport involvement between these two groups. This is why age was not used as a control variable in this analysis.

Third, the country of origin might have also influenced the results. As mentioned before, 60.7 percent of the undergraduate students were from Hong Kong. Finally, it is possible that married students were over-represented among the graduate students. In a survey of international students (1986-1987) at the University of Alberta, it was found that half of the graduate students were married compared with seven percent of the undergraduate students. Since age, marital status and country of origin were not controlled for in this analysis, it is suggested that future research should take these factors into account.

C. Marital Status

Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) pointed out that a key factor associated with adult sport involvement was whether or not their spouse and children were involved. As Greendorfer (1978) has noted, this is especially true for married females. While there was a trend in the predicted direction in this study, the results of the path analysis failed to support this association.

The non-significant effect of "Family" on primary and secondary sport involvement may be a result of two causes. First, a pair-wise deletion of missing values was used in this analysis. That meant that there was a relatively low number of respondents who answered both the "Family" and primary sport involvement questions (92 students), and "Family" and secondary involvement questions (96 students). Second, the Canadian friend (CANADFR), home country friend

(HOMEFR) and family (FAMILY) were placed in the same content domain--"significant others." It is possible that although the correlations between "Family" and CANADFR," "HOMEFR," and "OTHERFR" (r=.352, .202, .330 respectively) are too low to have created multicollinearity problems, they may be high enough to neutralize the unique effect of "CANADFR," "OTHERFR," and "FAMILY" on primary and secondary sport involvement, while allowing a significant effect of "HOMEFR" on primary sport involvement. In other words, had each one of the non-significant variables been included in a separate regression analysis, the results might have become significant. The question then would have been whether or not the model was correctly specified.

In this research Yamaguchi's model has been reformulated to fit the purpose of the current study and to avoid some of its weaknesses. The following is a list of changes to Yamaguchi's model that were introduced in this study.

First, because Yamaguchi focused on fitness programs in the work place, his dependent variable captured only primary sport involvement. In contrast, this study concentrates on both primary and secondary sport involvement. Importantly, not only does this additional aspect contribute to our understanding of sport involvement, but it also highlighted various aspects of the acculturation process.

Second, this study has utilized a wider range of measures to estimate the effect of the cultural dimension.

While Yamaguchi used only two measures (individualism vs. contextualism) in the cultural dimension, the current study attempted to assess the effect of various other cultural measures (e.g., the popularity of sport in each country).

Third, the purpose of this study required that a question be developed to ascertain the effect of a person's attitude toward social integration on their sport involvement. This dimension was not tapped in Yamaguchi's model.

Another unique contribution of this study relates to the situational dimension. Unlike Yamaguchi, this study highlights the effect that living in a community with an elite team and superstar athletes (The Oilers and W. Gretzky) can have on a foreign student's socialization process. Additionally, useful information of the effect of different peer-groups on sport involvement has been gained in the study by using three different peer groups (Home country friend, Canadian friend and other country friend). This procedure has improved our understanding of the integration process.

Finally, Yamaguchi applied this model to many sub-groups included in the sample. This procedure resulted in a situation where the number of the observations per group were very close to the number of variables used in the model. Consequently, each of the sub-model was estimated with very few degrees of freedom. This in turn, reduced the generalizability of the sub-analyses and artificially inflated the R^2 reported in each model. To avoid this shortcoming, the current study was careful not to break down the sample to too small groups.

This study was based on several theories, some of which were strongly supported while others were only partially supported. The findings provide strong support for the efficacy of the symbolic interaction and identification theories. In most cases, the perceived athletic ability and sport team identification exerted significant influence on sport involvement. Role theory, on the other hand, was partially supported in this study. According to this theory, individuals are more likely to enact conforming behavior in a group if they come from a society where groupism is an important cultural value. Indeed, it was found that the Chinese students were more likely to socialize with their home-country peer-groups.

Smith and Macaulay (1980) have developed a static theoretical model which explains why people participate in sport and recreation activities. Central to the model is the notion of using a wide range of explanatory variables when studying any discretionary time activity. To support this model, Smith and Theberge (1987) reviewed the literature and concluded that it confirmed the validity of the ISSTAL model. However, many raised serious doubts about this model. It has been argued that the model is not a detailed theory of individual behavior but an ambitious and ultimately unrealizable, research program. In other words, the model is proposed to explain all conscious individual behavior by considering everything. Furthermore, Smith et al presented a schema for classifying all manner of variables, but they suggested only very general connections among these categories. Worse, since they organized variables in a rough temporal sequence according to some implicit notions of their causal priority, it is an inadequate approach to explaining social behavior.

Given that the basic purpose of social science modeling is to replicate reality and predict future events with the most parsimonious model possible, it is suggested not to use the Smith et al model in toto. Instead, the wise researcher should perceive the Smith et al model as a tool box from which the researcher should borrow one or a couple tools (parts) at a time, depending on the problem (research question at hand). In fact, like the Yamaguchi study, this study utilized part of the Smith et al model (attitudinal dispositions). This part appeared to be an important component of the model presented in this study. Hence, while the Smith et al model in total may be difficult to apply in behavioral research because it is so comprehensive, the current study suggests that using just part of the model may be beneficial in behavioral research.

Continuity theory appeared to have some explanatory power for interpreting secondary sport involvement, but was ineffective in accounting for primary sport involvement. Additionally, social learning theory, Guttmans model, and Smith et al. framework received inconsistent support. Yet, even those theories which were only partially supported may be useful in other research, using different samples. To estimate their usefulness, the current study should be replicated from samples drawn from other universities and provinces.

To sum up, despite the increased emphasis on adult sport socialization, few previous attempts have been made to clarify the process of foreign students' socialization into sport. The present study was an attempt to fill this void. The findings of this study have highlighted the significance of four dimensions in the socialization process into primary and secondary sport involvement.

Generally, it was found that the model developed by Yamaguchi (1984) was applicable to the study of foreign student socialization into sport. This model offered an opportunity to test the influence of cultural orientations on sport involvement. The results of this study indicated that the process of socialization into primary and secondary sport involvement was influenced not only by the cultural dimension, but also by the antecedent, attitudinal and situational dimensions.

In comparison to the three other dimensions, the attitudinal dimension explained much of the variance in primary sport involvement. In contrast, secondary sport involvement was strongly influenced by the antecedent, cultural and situational dimensions. Further, the results of this study reflected unique sex differences as well as different patterns of sport involvement among graduates and undergraduates and married and single students.

Chapter VII

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter comprises three sections. The first section provides a summary of the investigation; the second section presents the conclusions drawn from the findings; the final section contains recommendations for future research, as well as the implications of this study for the field of sport sociology.

Part 1

Summary

A. Purpose

The purpose of this study was to understand the process of socialization into sport among foreign students at the University of Alberta. Specifically, the study attempted to explain the effect of antecedent, cultural, attitudinal and situational dimensions on the primary and secondary sport involvement of foreign students.

A second aim was to test and improve a theoretical framework developed recently by Yamaguchi (1987). Yamaguchi offered a path model which explained the process of socialization into physical activity roles in corporate settings. Although this model was originally tested in a somewhat different setting, it was modified slightly to suit this investigation.

The basic assumption of the study was that socialization theory provides an appropriate vehicle for examining role learning of primary and secondary sport involvement. Thus, a variety of socialization perspectives (social learning theory, reference group theory, role theory, symbolic interactionism theory, Guttmann's framework and the Isstal model) were employed to explain the socialization process. These perspectives were used to identify the important variables in explaining the degree of socialization into primary and secondary sport involvement. These included: (1) the antecedent dimension (past experience, social status), (2) the cultural dimension (the value of sport, the attitude toward female sport participation, individualism vs. groupism), (3) the attitudinal dimension (attitude toward sport and personal health, perceived athletic ability, attitude toward social integration), and (4) the situational dimension (significant others, opportunity set, team identification and work situation).

B. Methodology

The following procedures were followed in conducting the study:

1) A pilot study was undertaken, featuring a preliminary version of the self-administered questionnaire. It was sent to a sample of

twenty-five students selected at random from the population.

2) Interviews were arranged with ten international students to elicit their reactions to the pilot survey. The questionnaire was revised on the basis of the results from the pilot study and the interviews.

3) Several initiatives were made to convince the students to participate in the study; the International Student Center's director endorsed the study in a cover letter, articles describing the study were published in the International Newsletter, and discussions were held with various foreign student groups to elicit support for the study.

4) The questionnaire was sent to 1556 foreign students at the University of Alberta. A follow-up letter was sent to 30 International Student Organizations on campus. In addition, articles in the International Newsletter encouraging respondents to return questionnaires and several posters in key locations served as reminders for students to participate in the study.

5) Of the 1556 questionnaires sent, 430 were usable returns (28%) and 37 were returned as undeliverable (2.4%). The data were punched into

the computer and several analyses were conducted using SPSSX.

C. Analysis

The study required three stages of analysis. In the first stage, descriptive statistics for the dependent and independent variables were presented. The dependent variables (primary and secondary sport involvement) were analyzed separately by country, sex and degree program. The independent variables were analyzed by sex cohort. Background information concerning foreign students' sport participation was also presented in this section. Reliability measurements, frequency distributions, T-tests and a oneway (Scheffe) analysis were employed to analyze the data.

In the second stage, the relationship between the dependent and independent variables were tested. Each of the propositions were analyzed using a bivariate regression. Reliability coefficients and factor analyses were used to determine the items to be included in a composite measure.

Finally, the multivariate statistical technique, path analysis, was employed to test the hypothesized path model. A series of path analyses were presented separately for sex, degree program, marital status and country.

Part 2

Conclusions

In light of the findings of this investigation, the following conclusions appear warranted with respect to foreign students at the University of Alberta:

A. Descriptive Statistics

1. Students from the U.S.A. were more actively involved in sport than students from other countries. Also, the Americans consumed sport to a greater extent than did the other students. In contrast, students from Hong Kong were the least active in sport.
2. Male respondents were more involved in primary and secondary sport than were female respondents.
3. There were significant differences in the sport involvement of graduate and undergraduate students, in that graduate students were more active in primary and secondary sports than undergraduates.
4. Male respondents were more involved in primary and secondary sport during their youth than were female respondents. Moreover, males reported deriving more satisfaction and pleasure from their sport involvement than did females.
5. Female respondents expressed greater interest in their nutritional habits and body weight than did

male respondents. In contrast, males showed a stronger belief in the benefits of physical activity.

6. There were no significant differences between males and females in terms of the amount of encouragement received from significant others.
7. With respect to their personal philosophy of sport, both males and females agreed that "to play well," to "play for self improvement," and "to participate with others" were important values. Further, both males and females indicated that "to have fun" was extremely important for them. Male respondents, however, expressed significantly greater interest in "winning" and "playing fairly" than females did.
8. The most popular sports activities for males were swimming, jogging and soccer, while females preferred swimming, badminton and squash. The team mentioned most often by respondents as their favorite was "Edmonton Oilers," while the most frequently cited athlete by both males and females, was Wayne Gretzky.
9. Both male and female respondents perceived sport as adding to the quality of their lives. Most respondents indicated that their sport involvement contributed to their personal health and fitness. A majority of the male students stated that fun

and enjoyment were important benefits, while more females than males indicated that tension release and weight control were the most important benefits for them.

10. Only a few respondents listed at least one negative result of their sport involvement. The most common drawbacks mentioned were the injuries that can result and the substantial time commitment required.

B. Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis

1. In some instances a bivariate analysis might have been inappropriate because of the possibility of previous relationships between variables. Thus it was also necessary to examine the relationships using a multivariate analysis. For example, in contrast to the results of the bivariate analysis, past experience showed an insignificant effect on primary sport involvement in the multivariate analysis. This indicated that the bivariate analysis oversimplified reality.
2. Respondents' primary sport involvement was strongly influenced by the attitudinal dimension, while their secondary sport involvement was influenced more by the antecedent and situational dimensions.

3. Counter to the conventional wisdom expressed in the literature, the present investigation found no association between socioeconomic status and sport involvement. In several cases, however, negative associations between parents' education and secondary sport involvement were identified.
4. The continuity theory appeared to have limited explanatory power for primary sport involvement, but to be more useful for secondary sport involvement. In addition, the present degree of primary and secondary sport involvement was influenced not only by past behavioral involvement, but also in an affective sense by the pleasure they experienced during past involvement.
5. The present study provided some evidence of the influence of groupism and individualism orientations on respondents' sport involvement, and on their attitude toward social integration. However, these results should be viewed with caution since these students may not comprise a representative sample of their countries.
6. Significant sex differences were seen in the relationship between certain components of the situational dimension and involvement in primary and secondary sport involvement. For the female cohort, the elements in the situational dimension

were not influential in their primary or secondary sport involvement.

7. For male students, the major predictors of primary sport involvement were their attitude toward sport and how they perceived their own athletic ability. For female students the attitude toward personal health was the influential factor.

8. Graduate students' sport participation was dependent on more factors than was undergraduates' participation. The most influential domain in undergraduates' sport participation was the attitudinal dimension.

9. Secondary sport involvement in this study was greatly determined by two factors, which here had gone unnoticed in previous studies: (1) attitude toward social integration and (2) sport team identification. The findings of this study provide strong support for the influence of these variables on secondary sport involvement.

10. Significant others, such as instructors and family members, did not exert significant influence on respondents' primary and secondary sport involvement. Home country peer groups, however, were particularly important socializing agents for involvement in sport. In addition, the findings provide strong support for the social learning theory of Bandura and Walters (1963). These

investigators have emphasized the importance of modeling, imitation and vicarious learning as somewhat independent of external reinforcement. It was apparent in this study that peer groups' actual participation in sport was a stronger predictor for respondents' involvement than peer groups' encouragement to participate in sport.

11. The opportunity set and work situation were generally not important variables in determining involvement in sport. However, study time and membership in sport clubs were influential variables in the process of foreign students' sport socialization.

Part 3

Recommendations

A. Recommendations:

In light of the analysis and results of the present study, a number of possibilities for future investigation are suggested:

1. The present study shows that a variety of factors influence foreign students' sport involvement. However, the consequences of sport participation were not fully explained. For example, this study does not show whether and to what extent sport

involvement helps foreign students adjust to their new surroundings or how it may mitigate problems of loneliness or the tension of academic work. Future theoretical and empirical efforts should be directed toward finding the consequences of foreign students' sport involvement.

2. The model used in this study could be examined in other universities in North America as well as in other countries. That would be useful particularly in American universities where university sports programs are nationally recognized. In order to generalize this model and to understand cross national differences, more studies are required. Moreover, the conceptual framework was tested in a large university. The model could be tested among foreign students in mid-sized and small universities.

3. A more definitive understanding of the socialization process would be possible if a longitudinal approach were be adopted. The findings of this study show some key differences between the socialization process for students who plan to stay in Canada and socialization in those who plan to go back to their home countries. A longitudinal approach would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the process.

4. The present study provides evidence of the influence of cultural values such as "groupism" and "individualism" on sport involvement. More attention should be paid to the influence of other cultural values of a given society on involvement in sport. For example, values such as equality, democracy, freedom, racism and related group-superiority themes could be tested.
5. The findings suggest sex differences as well as degree, marital-status and country differences. Future studies should be directed toward an increased understanding of these differences.
6. Future studies should investigate the relationship between family encouragement to participate in sport and primary and secondary sport involvement. Traditionally, it has been assumed that encouragement from family members influences sport participation. It might be that causality is reversed so that sport involvement affects family encouragement to participate in sport.
7. The present study used mainly a quantitative method analysis. An attempt should be made in future studies to combine both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Qualitative methods such as participant observation and interviews could be used to generate rich and subjective data that quantitative methods cannot secure. For example,

qualitative methods together with survey instruments would be needed to gain a more in-depth understanding of how and why foreign students become socialized into sport, why they continue to be involved in Canada, or why they become desocialized.

8. It appears from this research that the SES measurement may be country specific. Generally, the construct of SES can be operationalized by three variables (education, income, occupation). Whether or not these variables comprise a scale should be the subject matter of research in the country of concern. Yet if a research project encompasses more than a few countries, this recommendation may become impractical. In such cases, researchers should decide how to operationalize SES based on the relevant literature, being aware of the methodological problems they may face.

B. Implications

Traditionally, socialization theorists have concentrated on socialization as an internalization process. They have viewed the socialization process as a means through which cultural patterns are internalized into the personality system. Role learning thus occurs through internalization by a passive socializee. Recently, however, scholars of socialization theory have emphasized both the active and passive aspects of socialization. Dager (1976), for example, has stressed the point that children should be viewed as both passive and active actors in the socialization process. Individuals, then, are socialized into given roles, but through this integrative process they can impact on their social milieu and shape new modes of behaviour.

Furthermore, Wentworth (1980) has presented socialization in an interaction model. Through interactions with socialization agents, the novice assumes the role of a coproducer of socializing contexts. Wentworth has attempted to synthesize two major functions of socialization--the cultural transmission and the individual learning.

This study attempted to contribute to socialization research by combining the functionalist theories, which focus on the passivity of a socializee, and symbolic interaction theories, which emphasize the interactive nature of the process. This combination meant synthesizing micro and macro level theories and incorporating individual, cultural and situational factors into a sport socialization model. A major implication of the study was that micro- and macro-level perspectives can be used together to facilitate the understanding of adult socialization into sport. The active versus passive debate has not been resolved in this study, but it may be worth integrating the two schools of thought again in future studies. This approach would have the advantage of decreasing the polarity between theories of cultural transmission and those that deal with the development of autonomous human feelings.

Despite the recent focus on adult socialization, many questions remain unanswered regarding the socialization process in general, and the role sport plays in the process, in particular. This study attempted to advance knowledge on adult socialization by centering on a unique population--foreign students.

Foreign students can be divided into two groups: (1) those who plan to return to their home country, and (2) those who plan to settle in North America. For both groups the process of acculturation is extremely important. It is quite possible that the foreign students who return home will ultimately make up the bureaucratic, scientific, economic and political elites in their countries. It is assumed here that with the growing globalization of transportation, communication and trade, Canadian society would benefit if those who comprise such elites have a sound understanding of Canadian society and culture.

By the same token, those who plan to settle in Canada must achieve some degree of acculturation and integration if they wish to participate in all the benefits Canadian society has to offer (Ditomaso and Thompson, 1988). In this regard, a key finding of this study was that if students had a positive attitude toward social integration, they were likely to be involved in sport. This indicates that under certain conditions sport can be a useful vehicle in integrating immigrants into a new society.

The above implies that more research should be conducted on the acculturation process of foreign students via sport and other agents. The University, for its part, should provide greater opportunities for foreign students to engage in sport and leisure activities with the local people.

The sport socialization literature has been characterized as having too many atheoretical and unrelated studies (McPherson, 1986). This study tried to alleviate that concern by using a new theoretical model that proved helpful in explaining foreign students' socialization into sport. The model was also a valuable tool in helping to explain socialization theory in general. For example, continuity theory appeared to have some explanatory power for interpreting secondary sport involvement, but was ineffective in accounting for primary sport involvement. Additionally, the findings provide strong support for the efficacy of the symbolic interaction approach, role theory and identification theory. In most cases, the perceived athletic ability and sport team identification exerted significant influence on sport involvement.

It is suggested that Yamaguchi's four-dimensional model, which was probably used here for the first time, is a good starting point for future research in the area. The model suggests that involvement in sport is likely influenced by a variety of factors, including not only antecedent attitudinal and situational factors, but also cultural factors. Because it focuses on multiple factors, it provides a deeper insight into the sport socialization process. No doubt, however, that some of the variables within each domain could be modified to get better results.

A shortcoming of this study was that it grouped foreign students together. A breakdown of the sample by country of origin was attempted, but the consequent analysis yielded no significant results due to a small number of cases relative to the very high number of countries (85). Future studies might attempt to control for the effect of classification variables such as geography and cultural similarities by grouping students according to region, for example, Southeast Asia, Western Europe, Middle East and so forth.

Finally, a recent University of Alberta study (Survey of International Students, 1986-87) pointed out that there is a negligible amount of background information on foreign students. A practical value of the current study was that it produced information that was useful for officials working for the International Students Bureau.

The study provided a broad information base on sport involvement and other related issues which might be of use in future analyses. For example, an examination of the path coefficients indicated that a male who came from a highly educated family, had a high level of athletic perceptions and strong attitudes toward sport, identified with a sport team or athlete, and received encouragement from home country friends, would have a greater chance of being socialized into a primary sport role. Practitioners could identify these male students and their sport involvement. For those who had a small chance of being socialized into sport, alternative activities should be offered.

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APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER

University of Alberta
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International Centre

Canada T6G 2E2

172 HUB International; Telephone (403) 432-2692
Electronic Mail Netnorth ICIC@UALTAMTS

29 December 1988

Dear International Student

I am an international PhD student with the Department of Physical Education. Currently I am working on my PhD dissertation which concerns the effects of international students' sports activities on their adjustment to the local, new society. Some students I have talked to have indicated that an involvement in sport eased their adjustment to Canadian society. My dissertation aims at finding out whether this experience has been personal or common to most international students.

The enclosed questionnaire is being sent to all international students at the University of Alberta. There are no identifying marks or numbers on the questionnaire. All responses will be completely anonymous and will be kept strictly confidential. No person or group other than the researcher will have access to your questionnaire.

I realize that this is a very busy time for most students. Completing the questionnaire, however, will take no more than 25 minutes of your time. Please note that it is typed on **both sides of the page**. I will greatly appreciate it if you return your questionnaire by **January 15**.

When you have completed the questionnaire, please place it in the addressed Campus Mail envelope supplied and deposit it in Campus Mail. You can deposit the questionnaire at any department, faculty or administrative office on campus, at the yellow Campus Mail Box outside the Administrative Building or at the International Centre. No postage is required.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Nurit Reshef

Nurit Reshef

It is a pleasure for me to endorse this important study which Nurit Reshef is conducting. Previous studies that foreign students at this university have graciously participated in have been invaluable to us in our attempts to improve services to all international students. I believe that this study too will considerably help the International Centre evaluate and plan its programs, particularly as they relate to physical education and sports program. Your participation in this study will be greatly appreciated.

Wilfred Allan
Director

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Sport Survey of International Students at the University of Alberta

Please try to answer all of the questions which apply to you. Most of them can be answered by checking the blank next to the answer you have chosen, by writing in the blank space provided or by circling the appropriate number.

1) How long have you been in Canada? ____ year(s) and ____ month(s).

2) How old are you? ______ years.

3) What is your sex? (1) ___ male (2) ___ female

4) What is your country of citizenship ? ____________________________

5) What is your present marital status?

(1)__ married
(2)__ divorced
(3)__ separated
(4)__ widowed
(5)__ single (if single go to question 9)
(6)__ living with someone of the opposite sex (but not married)
(8)__ other

6) What is/was your spouse's country of citizenship?______________________

7) How many children do you have? __________

8) Do your spouse and your children currently reside in Edmonton?

	Yes	No	Not Applicable
(A) spouse	1	2	3
(B) children	1	2	3

9) What is your registration status at the University of Alberta?

(1) ___Full-time student (2) ___ Part-time student

10) (A) For which degree are you currently studying?

(1) ___Bachelor (2) ___Master (3) ___Doctoral

(B) In which faculty are you enrolled?__________________________

11) How long do you intend to stay in Canada?

(1)__ Less than 1 year (3)__ 4 - 6 years (5)__ More than 9 years

(2)__ 1 - 3 years (4)__ 7 - 9 years (9)__ I don't know

12) What do you plan to do on completion of your current degree? (circle the answer that is most likely).

(1) Return to my home country.
(2) Study for another degree at the U of A.
(3) Study for another degree at another Canadian or American university.
(4) Apply for permanent resident status and work in Canada.
(8) Other, please specify ______________________________.

13) In general, how would you describe your present state of health compared with others of your age and sex?

(1) below average		(2) average		(3) good		(4) excellent
______	:	______	:	______	:	______

14) How would you rate your physical fitness level compared with others of your age and gender?

(1) below average		(2) average		(3) good		(4) excellent
______	:	______	:	______	:	______

15) How important are each of the following items to you?

	Not important at all		Neutral		extremely important
A)Your personal health	1	2	3	4	5
B)Your nutrition	1	2	3	4	5
C)Your body weight	1	2	3	4	5
D)Personal involvement in sport or exercise	1	2	3	4	5

16) Did you participate in the orientation tour of university's physical education facilities?

(1) ____ Yes (2)____ No

Here are some questions about your sport and exercise activities.

17) Are you currently participating in an active sport (e.g., jogging, tennis)?

(1) Yes____ (2) No____ (if no, go to question 20)

18) In what type of sport and exercise are you currently active ?

	Active	Not Active
A) Individualized fitness programs (e.g., jogging)	1	2
B) Group fitness programs (e.g., fitness class)	1	2
C) Individual sport (e.g., golf, tennis, squash)	1	2
D) Team sport (e.g., softball, hockey)	1	2
E) Tournaments or special sporting events.	1	2
F) Other active sports	1	2 (please

specify ____________________________________)

19) Are you currently active in any of the International Student Organization Teams (e.g., soccer, volleyball, softball)?

(1) ___ No (2) ___ Yes (Please specify)______________________________

20) Do you belong to a sport organization outside the university?

(1) ___ No (2) ___ Yes, What club? (Please list) ____________________

21) Do you belong to an international student club on campus? (this includes any club, sporting or non sporting)

(1) ___ Yes (2) ___ No (if no, go to question 24)

22) To which club do you belong ? ____________________________

23) Do you engage in sport as part of the club's activities?

(1) ___ No (2) ___ Yes. If Yes, please answer (A) and (B)

(A) Which sport are you active in? ______________________________

(B) How often do you participate in this sport?

(1)___ Regularly (2)___ Sometimes (3)___ Rarely

24) Did you participate in the "skate - give away" program?

(1)___ Yes (2)___ No

25) On average, how often have you engaged in exercise or sport activities (e.g., jogging, fitness class, hockey, etc.) during the past 12 months?

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
3 times a week or more	about 1-2 times a week	once every 2-3 weeks	about 6-12 times per year	about 3-5 times per year	rarely or not at all
________ :	________ :	______ :	______ :	________ :	________

*If you were involved, what were your favorite sports or exercise activities?

(1)________________ (2)________________ (3)__________________

26) In which of the following locations do you usually engage in sport and exercise activities? (Please circle each one of the following items).

	Yes	No
(1) home	1	2
(2) park with recreation facilities	1	2
(3) private club	1	2
(4) public sport facilities	1	2
(5) outdoors using no special facilities	1	2
(6) University of Alberta	1	2
(8) other (specify, __________________)	1	2
(9) __ not applicable		

*Please indicate the number of the location where you exercise most often: ____

27) When involved in sport or exercise activities, who is it with? (Please circle each one of the following items).

	Yes	No
(A) Canadian friend(s)	1	2
(B) Friend(s) from your home country	1	2
(C) Friend(s) from other countries	1	2
(D) Family or relatives	1	2
(E) Others	1	2

28) How often have you attended, viewed (on T.V.), read or talked about sport during the past 12 months?

	3 times a week or more	about 1-2 times a week	once every 2-3 weeks	about 6-12 times per year	about 3-5 times per year	rarely or not at all
Attended:	1	2	3	4	5	6
Viewed:	1	2	3	4	5	6

	3 times a week or more	about 1-2 times a week	once every 2-3 weeks	about 6-12 times per year	about 3-5 times per year	rarely or not at all
Read:	1	2	3	4	5	6
Talked:	1	2	3	4	5	6

*If you attended sport events, which sports did you attend most often?

(1)______________________ (2) ______________________

*If you viewed (on T.V.) sports events, which sports did you view most often?

(1)______________________ (2) ______________________

*If you read about sports, which sports did you read about most often?

(1)______________________ (2)______________________

*If you talked about sports, which sports did you talk about most often?

(1)______________________ (2)______________________

29) To what extent do the following people encourage or discourage your participation in sport and exercise activities?

	Often discourage me	Sometimes discourage me	Neither discourage nor encourage	Sometimes encourage me	Often encourage me	Not applicable
(A) close friend from your country	1	2	3	4	5	6
(B) close Canadian friend	1	2	3	4	5	6
(C) close friend from other country	1	2	3	4	5	6
(D) children or spouse (if any)	1	2	3	4	5	6
(E) teacher at the university	1	2	3	4	5	6

30) Thinking about the same friends, how often do the following people participate in sport and exercises?

	3 times a week or more	about 1-2 times a week	once every 2-3 weeks	about 6-12 times per year	about 3-5 times per year	rarely or not at all	Not applicable
A) close Canadian friend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B) close friend from your country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C) close friend from other country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D) children or spouse (if any)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

31) Would you say, that your participation in sport and exercise activities is: (please check all items from a to e).

A) important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unimportant
B) desirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	undesirable
C) beneficial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not beneficial
D) valuable	I	2	3	4	5	6	7	invaluable
E) fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not fun

32) Do you have a favorite sport team ?

(1) Yes ___ (2) No ___ (if no, go to question 36)

33) Which team is your favorite? ________________________________

34) During the last season, how many times did you watch (on T.V. or live) your favorite sport team ?

(1) ____ 1-5 times (3)____ more than 10 times

(2) ____ 6-10 times (4)____ not at all

35) How often do you do the following:

	Often	Sometimes	Not at all
A) You wear your favorite team shirt and/or hat.	1	2	3
B) You collect souvenirs of your favorite team and athletes.	1	2	3

36) Is there any particular athlete that you admire?

(1)___ No   If yes, please name ______________________

The next set of questions deals with your past sport involvement.

37) In your home country, how often did you engage in sport and exercise activities (except physical education classes) when you were in:

	Almost every day	About 3 times a week	About once a week	About once a month	About once a year	Not at all
A) Elementary school (6-12 years)	1	2	3	4	5	6
B) Secondary school (13-18 years)	1	2	3	4	5	6
C) Early adulthood (19-20 years)	1	2	3	4	5	6

38) In your home country how often did you attend, watch on T.V. or read about sport events when you were in:

	Almost every day	About 3 times a week	About once a week	About once a month	About once a year	Not at all
A) Elementary school	1	2	3	4	5	6
B) Secondary school	1	2	3	4	5	6
C) Early adulthood	1	2	3	4	5	6

39) During your youth, to what extent did you get satisfaction or pleasure from participating in sport or exercise activities?

	Not at all	To a limited extent	To some extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
A)Elementary school	1	2	3	4	5
B)Secondary school	1	2	3	4	5
C)Early youth	1	2	3	4	5

The following questions deal with your work in general.

40) Approximately how many hours on weekdays or weekend do you have as free time to engage in leisure activities?

During the school year		During the summer	
A) Weekday:	_____ hours.	C) Weekday:	_____ hours.
B) Weekend:	_____ hours.	D) Weekend:	_____ hours.

41) During the school year, how many hours a week do you spend studying (including the time you attend courses)?

(1)___ less than 10 hours.

(2)___ 11-20 hours.

(3)___ 21-30 hours.

(4)___ 31-40 hours.

(5)___ 41-50 hours.

(6)___ more than 50 hours.

42) If you are employed, how many hours a week do you spend working? (Including the time you work as a research or teaching assistant).

(1)___ less than 10 hours.

(2)___ 11-20 hours.

(3)___ 21-30 hours.

(4)___ 30-40 hours

(5)___ 41-50 hours.

(6)___ more than 50 hours.

43) Do you live on campus ?

(1) ___ No (2) ___ Yes (if yes, go to question 46)

44) On average, how many minutes does it take you to get to the university from your home?

____________ minutes.

45) In your community, how close are you to the nearest sport facility where you can engage in sport and exercises?

(1) __ Up to 5 minutes
(2) __ 6 - 15 minutes
(3)___ 16 - 30 minutes
(4)___ 31 minutes to 1 hour
(5)___ More than 1 hour
(9) ___ Don't know

The following questions relate to your opinions on various issues:

46) In playing games, how important would the following items be to you? Please circle the number showing how important or unimportant they would be to you.

	Not important at all		Neutral		Very important
A) To play it as well as you can.	1	2	3	4	5
B) To beat your opponent.	1	2	3	4	5
C) To play it fairly.	1	2	3	4	5
D) To have fun and enjoyment.	1	2	3	4	5
E) To play it for self-improvement.	1	2	3	4	5
F) To participate with others.	1	2	3	4	5

47) If you are involved in sport:

(a) What benefits do you drive from your involvement? (Please list)

____
____
____
____

(b) Are there any negative results to your involvement? (Please specify)

____
____
____
____

48) To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A) It is important for an individual to be closely identified with at least one social group.	1	2	3	4
B) Individuals should for the most part "go for it alone" assuring themselves privacy, having much time to himself.	1	2	3	4
C) Some of life's greatest satisfactions are found in being cooperative with others.	1	2	3	4
D) It is often more gratifying to work for the accomplishment of a goal held by a group to which one belongs than to work for the attainment for a purely personal goal.	1	2	3	4
E) I prefer to associate with people from my country than with other people.	1	2	3	4
F) I think I am more independent than most others.	1	2	3	4
G) Some of life's greatest satisfactions are fulfilled when competing with others and winning.	1	2	3	4
H) I prefer to have as little to do with people from my country as possible.	1	2	3	4

49) Generally, how popular are the following activities in your country? Please circle the number showing how popular or unpopular they are in your country.

	Not popular at all		Neutral		Very popular
A) Attending concerts.	1	2	3	4	5
B) Attending place of worship (church, mosque, temple).	1	2	3	4	5

	Not popular at all		Neutral		Very popular
C) Watching sport events on T.V.	1	2	3	4	5
D) Watching other programs on T.V.	1	2	3	4	5
E) Attending sport events.	1	2	3	4	5
F) Participating in sport activities.	1	2	3	4	5
G) Attending theatrical events.	1	2	3	4	5
H) Going to movies.	1	2	3	4	5

50) How much do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
A) Sport helps me integrate into Canadian society.	1	2	3	4	5
B) I prefer to get involved in activities where I can meet Canadian people.	1	2	3	4	5
C) I can better enter Canadian society by participating in sport.	1	2	3	4	5
D) The more successful the sport team the more important the team is to me.	1	2	3	4	5
E) My involvement in sport has slowed my academic achievements.	1	2	3	4	5

It is very important to my study to have information on the social standing of your family at home, so I greatly appreciate your answers to these final few questions.

51) What is/was your father's last occupation?____________________________

52) How many years of formal education did your parents have?

Father: _____ years. Mother: _____ years.

53) Compared with other families in your country, how would you assess your family of origins income per year ?

(1) Very high	(2) High	(3) Average	(4) Low	(5) Very low
_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____

54) Compared with other families in your country, how prestigious is your father's occupation?

(1) Very prestigious	(2) Prestigious	(3) Moderately prestigious	(4) Not prestigious
_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____

55) Compared with male sport participation, how acceptable is female sport participation in your country?

(1) strongly acceptable	(2) acceptable	(3) not so acceptable	(4) Not acceptable at all
_______ :	_______ :	_______ :	_______

56) What is your religious preference?

(1)___ Christianity
(2)___ Budhism
(3)___ Hinduism
(4)___ Judaism
(5)___ Islam
(8)___ Other (Please specify,_________________)
(9)___ None

57) If you do NOT use the university's sport facilities is it because?

(1)___ They are too expensive.
(2)___ You do not have the time.
(3)___ You are not familiar with these facilities.
(4)___ You prefer to use other facilities.
(8)___ Other reason (Please specify) ______________________________
(9)___ Not applicable.

If you have any comments, please feel free to add them at the back.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION!

APPENDIX C

REMINDING LETTERS

January 26, 1989

To: International Student Group's President

From: Nurit Reshef

Dear President:

I am writing to ask you to help me improve the quality of my Ph.d research project (which deals with how sport may help foreign students adjust to a new social environment). In December 1988, I mailed 1,550 questionnaires to all of the international students at the University of Alberta. I have already got back a satisfactory number of questionnaires (420). To make the results of my research more accurate, however, I need more questionnaires returned.

I would greatly appreciate it if you could ask your organization's members to complete and return their questionnaires at their earliest convenience, if they have not yet done so. In case they do not have a copy of the questionnaire, they can get one from the International Center Office in Hub-Mall.

I would like to thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely

Nurit Reshef

Nurit Reshef

FOREIGN STUDENTS

It's not too late.

Please return the
SPORTS QUESTIONNAIRE
I mailed you last month.
This will help increase the quality
of my Ph.D. research.

Sincerely,
Nurit Reshef

Copies of the questionnaire are available
from the International Centre.
Thank you.